The Nation.

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The Week.

The Panama Canal directors had a meeting on Saturday, and voted to offer their property to the United States for $40,000,000, the price named by our Isthmian Canal Commission as the value of the property to us. There has been no doubt that the French company would come to this decision. The property they hold, except the Panama Railroad, is of no value to them unless they go on and finish the canal. But they cannot get the money for this purpose if the United States is building, or even contemplates building, another Isthmian canal. The logic of the situation has, therefore, been very simple ever since the report of our Commission was made. Logic equally requires that our Commission should now advise the President to recommend to Congress the acceptance of the offer. Assuming that the price asked by the French Company is satisfactory, the advantages of the Panama route are: (1) less cost by $6,000,000; (2) shorter distance by 134 miles; (3) smaller operating expense after completion by $1,300,000 per year; (4) natural harbors at both termini, which are wanting on the Nicaragua route; (5) a completed railway, which insures a prompt beginning of the work; two years would be required to make equal preparations at Nicaragua. These facts are set forth in plain terms by the Commission, and they have not been contradicted by the advocates of the Nicaragua route. The arguments in favor of the latter are mainly of the sentimental kind. We ought to build on the Nicaragua line because we have always intended to, because an American company began work there several years ago, and because it is the patriotic thing to do. We are told also that it is not wise to listen to the Panama offer because the railroads are pushing it forward in order to create delay—as though the railroad men would favor the shortest and cheapest line, and the one which can be operated at the smallest cost. Such fustian may carry the Hepburn bill through the House, but it is certain that that measure will not pass the Senate for mere reasons of spread-eagleism.

Senator Lodge's Philippines bill, which is to serve as a basis of discussion for the Senate and the House, is rather remarkable for what it fails to say than for what it says. It is, in effect, an enabling act, a kind of vote of confidence in the Taft Commission, to which it grants most of the powers specified in Commissioner Taft's recent report. "We trust our Commission," is the implication of the bill. "We intrust to it such troublesome matters as the government of Filipino communes, the disposition of public lands, the purchase of church property—in short, all these things we turn over in full confidence to our trusty Commission." The bill will undoubtedly be urged on these grounds. But is this Administration measure so complete a vote of confidence? Why, in either house, has no attention been paid to the most pressing recommendation of the Philippines Commission, namely, that the customs duties for the islands should be fixed at one-half the Dingley schedule? This was concrete. It regarded a more urgent situation than the making of highways or the purchase of church lands. Were the Commissioners sages when they spoke for the upland, but fools when they touched the gates of trade? The case, of course, is this: we are willing, in the difficult administration of these new possessions, to take any trouble that is not troublesome to a Senator or a Representative, or their constituents.

While no one can sympathize with soldiers who desert their flag and take service with the enemy, the document published on Saturday, signed by nine Americans, urging their fellow-soldiers to desert to the Filipinos, is one which cannot be overlooked. It is the Government's misfortune that the statements of these deserters as to the nature of the war of invasion being carried on in the islands are true. More and more testimony is forthcoming that the Filipinos are defending themselves against the American invasion "in the same manner in which our forefathers did against England in those glorious days of our grand and noble liberator, Gen. George Washington." While this document is plainly more than a year old, the rumors of frequent American desertions continue. One press dispatch recently attributed the stubbornness of the Filipino defence in Samar to the presence in that island of fifty American deserters, a hardly credible statement. None the less, it is a fact that an increasing number of officers and men in the service dislike what seems to them the hopeless task of subjugating the Filipinos, and think themselves fortunate when able to board transports for home. It is hardly necessary to say that the proper way for them to record their protests is by leaving the service properly and stating their views to the public.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts delivered an address on "The Composition of American Citizenship," in the lecture course of the Young Men's Catholic Association of Boston, the other evening. Incidentally he expressed the opinion that the greatest honor ever paid to any nation in this world by another was the declaration by Japan, last summer, that she owes everything she is to us. He said that he deemed the two most glorious actions in our history, and among the most glorious actions in all history, to have been the declaration of our own independence, and the raising of Japan to her feet among the nations of the earth. He proceeded to declare his disbelief that "the American people are to be permanently in a frame of mind to blot out or wipe out either," and he considers that we have made temporarily a terrible mistake in departing from our traditional policy in the Philippines. On this point he spoke with great clearness and cogency:

> "I believe that, if our republic, with its might and irresistible force, had done with the Philippine people as we had done with Japan, its action would have found a response in what is best, and not in what is worst, in human nature. They would today be listening to our counsel, and informing themselves by our example. Their schools and universities would be filled with youth studying our language and history, fitting themselves to learn the great and noble story of the men who builded this republic. We should already have made of them a brave, honorable, and noble people, looking upon the present with satisfaction, and upon the future with hope. If, instead of that, they are exhibiting the traits which belong to weakness and subjection, it is we who are largely responsible. If the Filipino be treacherous, it is we that have made him treacherous; if he be cruel, it is we that have made him cruel; if he be savage, it is we that have dashed the cup of liberty and civilization from his lips."

Mr. T. Estrada Palma has been elected the first President of the Cuban Republic. In the eyes of Americans he ought to be the one best fitted to fill that position. He was the man who did most to enlist their sympathies in the movement to expel Spain from the island. Even those who did not approve of the war itself, were compelled to acknowledge that Mr. Palma was the chief organizer in this country of the public opinion which carried Congress off its feet and finally forced Mr. McKinley into the war party against his will. Therefore, Mr. Palma has a claim to be heard in the present crisis of Cuban affairs. In a widely published interview he says:

> "I will ask, with every expectation of the request being granted, that a reasonable reduction shall be made in the duty on sugar and tobacco, the two staples of Cuban agriculture. If this reduction is granted, the prosperity of Cuba will be immediate and great. If it is denied, it will mean ruin. There will be $500,000,000 employed in the sugar and tobacco industries, all of which will be lost if the American door is closed. The fields of Cuba will be desolated, and the sugar mills will be ruined just as thoroughly as they were by the Spanish incendiaries."

It is to be hoped that means will be

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found to extend the needed relief at once. This is not the proverbial case where he gives twice who gives quickly, but one where he who does not give quickly gives not at all. The help must apply to the present crop. If we wait till next June, we might as well wait till next January. Bankruptcy and despair will overtake the planters; beggary and starvation will be the portion of their laborers. We have deprived Cuba of her Spanish market, and have not given her anything in exchange for it. We owe her at least what we took from her, and we are bound in honor to pay the debt in time to save her from ruin.

Germany's "little bill" about to be presented to Venezuela at the point of a bayonet, is, in part at least, made up of private claims of German citizens, and of defaulted interest on Venezuelan bonds. It is thus not wholly a question of infringement of the rights of Germans in Venezuela, or of the failure of the Venezuelan Government to live up to its contracts with foreigners. It is really this aspect of the matter, rather than a supposed disrespect for the Monroe Doctrine, which makes the German attitude important from the point of view of international law. No one questions the right of a nation to interfere for the purpose of collecting debts due its subjects abroad; but it has not hitherto been considered good policy to do so. England has washed her hands of such undertakings, on the ground that it would lead to endless friction, and keep even her great navy too busy. An unofficial council of foreign bondholders has existed for years in London, mainly to attend to exactly such delinquencies in South American and Oriental countries as Germany is now complaining of in Venezuela. If the German Government is deliberately to turn itself into a debt-collecting agency, it will have its hands full.

Advocates of the extension of the referendum will find little encouragement in an analysis of the official election returns from the four States in which Constitutional amendments were submitted in November. In none of the four States did one-third of the voters who went to the polls express their views on the proposed amendments. In Pennsylvania, where the campaigning was exceptionally earnest, the largest proportion, nearly 31 per cent., was recorded; but in Maryland only about one in five of those who voted showed any interest in the amendments, and in Virginia only about one in eight. Comparison of the vote in New York is not feasible, as the tickets bore no nominee for a State office, but in New York County the total vote on the amendment rose to the unusual proportion of 55 per cent. of the vote cast for Mayor. In Virginia the voters had the excuse that their labor might be in vain, as a Constitutional Convention was in session; but as to the other States, the only explanation is the ignorance or indifference of a large majority of the voters.

In some of the large cities to be specially affected by the approval of the pending amendments, a greater measure of interest was shown, and yet in those cities the Aldermanship of a ward was a more engaging issue than even a measure for the purification of the ballot. There appeared, too, the usual variation in the votes for the several amendments, according to their order on the ballot, even when one amendment was cognate to another. Thus, in Baltimore, where two amendments, affecting the representation of that city in the Legislature, necessarily went together, one received about 2,500 more votes than the other. Three of the counties in the State ratified one of these amendments and rejected the other; and if the entire State had voted that way, much confusion would have resulted, and Baltimore might have been deprived for a time of all representation. As it was, the amendments were approved by the large vote in the city—about 41 per cent. of the total—against a small adverse vote in most of the counties, and the Constitution was changed in an important particular by the affirmative vote of about 33,000 electors out of nearly 300,000 persons on the registry lists.

Those trades-unionists who have impugned the motives of the labor delegates to the recent meeting of the National Civic Federation must find their extreme views rebuked by the report of Mr. Gompers concerning the objects and work of that body, for it is unusually wise and moderate. While he stanchly upholds what he conceives to be the rights of labor, he admits that the new movement cannot be expected to abolish strikes and lockouts. All that can reasonably be looked for is that some such conflicts may be avoided when capital and labor mutually recognize each other's rights to a greater degree than they now do. One point of special interest in Mr. Gompers's report is his opinion of compulsory arbitration. The demand for such arbitration, he says, comes from "some mistaken friends" of the labor movement. The whole trend of his remarks is against State interference in industrial conflicts, and in favor of voluntary settlement of labor disputes by methods of conciliation.

Mayor Low's message to the Board of Aldermen illustrates once more the skill with which this shrewd student of municipal problems strikes at the very heart of the matter with which he has to deal. Postponing for a month a thorough discussion of city affairs, he devotes his opening address entirely to the question of blackmail in the conduct of the government, and declares that against this iniquitous system in all its forms his Administration will wage open war. He announces that no citizen or employee, from the largest corporation to the poorest bootblack, need pay one dime for protection from harm or for securing just treatment at the hands of the city government; he promises that the whole force of the Administration will be exerted, "continuously, aggressively, and in every possible way," to prevent and punish this sort of iniquity; and he asks the coöperation of the citizens and of the city employees in breaking up "the whole foul system." There is something inspiring about this ringing appeal to the public, "for the city's sake and for democracy's sake." Nothing about the new city Administration is more refreshing than the relations of frankness and openness which have already been established between the officials and the people. Not only have the Mayor and the heads of departments nothing to conceal; they are glad to take the public into their confidence, as Mr. Low did in his statement on Friday evening about the reported attempt by Tammany to secure control of the Board of Aldermen by bribery. The same spirit is manifested all around.

District Attorney Jerome has already begun an inquiry into the corrupt methods of furnishing supplies, and particularly hose, to the Fire Department, for which Commissioner Scannell and his go-between, Marks, were indicted. His action in referring the matter to the Municipal Affairs Committee of the City Club indicates a praiseworthy intention to utilize this and similar public-spirited bodies, like the Merchants' Association, in his effort to improve municipal conditions, so far as it is his duty and opportunity to do so. President Cantor and Superintendent Stewart have already signified a like intention of consulting the various architectural and fine-arts leagues and other bodies which exist for the improvement of the city. The Low Administration has wisely recognized the fact that citizens have a right to be heard in these matters, and that there is no excuse for the neglect and indifference with which protestants were treated by the Van Wyck Government. By calling in public-spirited organizations to help in beautifying the city, or in finding out the corruption in the various departments, whether in supplying asphalt, stone pavements, or fire hose, the new city and county authorities have hit upon one of the best ways of enlisting public sympathy and guaranteeing the thoroughness of their work.

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The constant vigilance which is the price of civic beauty is illustrated in Paris in a movement to encourage the production of artistic signs. Initiated by the eminent military painter Detaille, the idea has been received favorably by the civic authorities, and there is every likelihood that some of the best painters and sculptors in Paris will lend their assistance to the work. There has of late been a feeling that Paris, beautiful as it is in its proportions, has become too uniform and monotonous. The present Prefect of the Seine has somewhat relaxed the strict censorship of the façades of new houses, in the hope that the city will gradually regain the picturesque aspect which it had before the Haussmann dispensation. The movement for artistic signs is inspired by this same spirit. M. Detaille feels that if the tradesmen will generally return to the habit of putting out distinctive signs, painted or sculptured, and the best artists will lend a hand, this will be the ideal manner of bringing art to the people. The idea is an admirable one, but its execution will involve a curious paradox. To have painted a sign-board, as many artists have done, is to a great artist what to have been a barefoot boy is to a multi-millionaire. The Parisians may yet see grave members of the Institute repeating, out of sheer public spirit, the tasks to which formerly only sheer necessity could have driven them.

Comptroller Coler has been the most interesting figure of the municipal Administration which is just retiring. He began his career as a surprise, developed into a mystery, and ends as a disappointment. Mr. Coler was unknown to the city when he was nominated on the Tammany ticket in the autumn of 1897, and not much was expected of him when he was elected. But he turned out to be a most industrious official, whose activity was for a long time exerted in the public interest, without any evidence that he was trying to serve personal ends. His prompt and earnest opposition to the Ramapo job was of immense value in arousing the public and in solidifying sentiment against the swindle. His exposures of Tammany extravagance were also illuminating and serviceable. In fact, if his term had been only two years, he might have retired at the end of 1899 with a splendid record. Ambition for higher office overcame him. Until some time after the opening of 1900, he regarded it as his duty to serve out the term of four years for which he had been elected, and considered that it would be a breach of his obligation to the people if he should surrender the place to Tammany. But the passion for advancement took possession of him, and a few months later he actively sought the Democratic nomination for Governor. This exposed him to the suspicion that he had been "playing politics" in his reform work, and aroused such doubt as to his political stability that he could not be seriously considered for the anti-Tammany ticket, a year later. His career has thus proved somewhat disheartening, and it must serve rather as a warning than as an inspiration to young men.

Senator Stranahan has promptly followed up Gov. Odell's suggestions for a mortgage tax, and the plan of a recording tax of 50 cents per $100, in lieu of any annual assessment, is now formally before the Legislature. If the proposal affected a situation in which mortgages were not taxed at all, theoretical objections might be decisive. But the truth is that the situation as it exists to-day has become almost intolerable. Mortgages are not only taxed, but taxed with the greatest unfairness and irregularity, and at a rate nearly five times as high as the proposed recording tax. We have had instances called to our attention where small estates, restricted by testamentary proviso to investment in high-grade mortgages, have been assessed on personalty virtually to the full face value of the mortgages. This, it will readily be perceived, was tantamount to an income tax of 50 per cent. or thereabouts, and it could not be sworn off or reduced. One of the results likely to flow from the new mortgage tax has been pointed out by Mr. F. D. Tappen in an interview in the *Evening Post*. Under the present law, trustees and executors are practically prohibited from investing in mortgage loans the funds in their hands. The rate of interest on such mortgages is usually not above 5 per cent., and not above 4½ per cent. on city property. The tax is upwards of 2 per cent. It takes one-half of the income from the mortgage to pay the tax, because trustees and executors cannot escape paying it. On the other hand, mortgage loans made by savings banks and life-insurance companies are exempt, and those made by individuals, other than executors and trustees, generally manage to escape. It is Mr. Tappen's belief that, if the record tax were adopted in lieu of all other taxation on mortgages, a large amount of capital which is now withheld from it would seek that form of investment. Trustees would no longer be deterred from it. Private individuals would invest their own money in mortgages more freely than before, because a menace would be removed. The effect of new supplies of capital for mortgage investment would be to lower the rate of interest, to the advantage of the borrower.

There is not much to be said of the Crude Rubber Company's collapse, except that it adds another chapter to the story of 1899's financial delusions. We say delusions, because, quite irrespective of the merits of the enterprise *per se*, its confession of insolvency shows it to have been founded on last year's wildly exaggerated hopes and theories. The company was not organized in the period of highly expanded prices; in fact, it came into being when rubber market quotations were hardly as high as they are to-day. But the infatuation as to the permanency of high commercial prices, which caused so many companies to heap up original liabilities in excess of what the future could provide for, induced the crude-rubber combination to incur fresh liabilities, under the same delusion. Rubber, the company's managers inform us, sold as high, a year or more ago, as $1.15 per pound. On the basis of something like this were incurred the heavy liabilities which have resulted in the company's suspension. The rubber market is now down to something like 85 cents; the company's large holdings of material, bought at the higher prices, have had to be liquidated at such figures as have wiped out the company's capital and profits, and forced it into insolvency. As we have said, this episode differs somewhat from that of other concerns in which the exceptional trade prosperity of the moment was, so to speak, capitalized at the expense of the general public. But the delusion as to prices did the mischief in the one case as in the other.

Electoral reform is under discussion in the French newspapers, and while the Ministry is as yet uncommitted to any definite revision, the abuses of the present system must eventually call for legislation. The chief weakness of this system lies in the fact that each arrondissement, however small, is entitled to a Deputy, which leads to the most startling inequalities of representation. For example, the Third District of the Arrondissement of Nantes has 35,519 voters; the Arrondissement of Barcelonnette has 3,479. Each returns its Deputy, and each voter in the obscure Alpine village counts for ten in the large city. Not only does this inequality affect the membership of the popular Assembly, but it is the worse because the arrondissement, unlike the State with us, is not a political, but an administrative unit. It elects no officers, and has practically no political powers, but is a mere administrative division of the department. That this purely arbitrary division should be allowed to vitiate the principle of equal representation is one of the many absurdities which have resulted from the Revolutionary régime, when the political map of France was made over irrespective of history and in deference to a false logic. While it is doubtful if so radical a plan as that for minority representation proposed in *Figaro* by M. Jules Roche will be advanced, it seems probable that the question of electoral reform must be seriously considered by the Parliament now in session.

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OUR IMPERILLED EXPORT TRADE.

In a special financial supplement, the *Evening Post* published on Tuesday week the opinions of a number of representative men concerning the business outlook of the coming year. The first one in the order of presentation was that of Secretary Gage, who consented to answer a few questions. Mr. Gage thinks that the prosperous conditions of the past year have not suffered any check; that our foreign trade will be maintained at its present volume, provided that we study intelligently the wants and habits of our customers abroad; provided, also, that we bear in mind that all trade is barter, and that we cannot continue to sell unless we buy. This is a pregnant thought, and was peculiarly appropriate in this locality at the moment it was uttered. On Thursday, the New York Chamber of Commerce emphatically voted resolutions, about treaties of reciprocity, which are really an alarm sounded by the closest and most interested observers of our foreign trade. They are active business men who, in their federated capacity, know no politics and swear by no economic theories. Their only concern is to promote the city's and the country's commerce. They might, as logicians, condemn the self-contradictory resolves of the Reciprocity Convention at Washington, but it is really in the guise of merchants that they speak their minds on that subject. What they say is, that a reciprocity which is terrorized by protection is not only a sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal, but is an immediate peril to our export trade. For these clear-sighted watchmen on the walls plainly perceive that the great industrial and commercial need of this nation is "new and wider markets for our products," and that the failure to secure them by reciprocal trade arrangements means not only that we shall get no added openings, but that we shall lose those we already have. The course of the head-in-the-sand protectionists and of the reciprocity advocates who take away with one hand what they give with the other, is, asserts the Chamber of Commerce, "likely to invite hostile legislation on the part of other nations against this country, to the great detriment of its commercial interests."

Such hostile legislation is not merely invited. It is openly advocated abroad. It is, in at least one important case, already formulated. The new German tariff, if enacted, will deal a heavy blow to the agricultural exports of the United States. Crushingly high duties will be laid on wheat and beef and pork products. The present duty on wheat is 3½ marks the metric cwt. of 220 pounds; the proposed duty is 6½ marks. On bacon the increase is from 13 to 35 marks, on pork from 17 to 30 marks, and on other meats from 15 to 30. Now, in 1900 we sold to Germany $6,495,000 worth of wheat and $2,700,000 of wheat flour, more than $2,000,000 of bacon and ham, and as much more of pork and other meats. Our cotton exports to Germany were, in the same year, of a value greater than $63,000,000. How much we ought to dread hostile legislation affecting this important export trade is obvious at a glance. What will Western and Southern Congressmen have to say to their constituents, what will the President have to say to the country, if supineness or sullen greed is allowed to imperil our foreign export trade?

The thing to keep clearly in mind is that hostile German legislation has not, so far, passed from threats to actual blows. The contingent aim of the higher duties was most distinctly set forth by the Chancellor in his speech to the Reichstag when laying the bill for the new tariff before it. Von Bülow said in so many words: "The new tariff is intended to supply a *better weapon* for conducting the negotiations for future treaties of commerce with other States." It did not mean, he asserted, the "abandonment of the policy of commercial treaties." It must be, he affirmed, "the most earnest endeavor of any responsible statesman to arrange treaties of commerce on acceptable conditions." But if treaties could not be arranged, why, there were the high duties for the products of foreign countries which stubbornly maintained high duties against German goods. Bismarck himself could not have been more explicit in laying down a policy of *do ut des*.

The danger to our trade in Germany is only a little more evident than in other countries. Austria will be inclined to enact tariffs against us, as soon as the Reichsrath can pull itself together to pass any laws at all. France knows the trick of maximum tariffs, and is ready to use them against us. As for Canada, her statesmen are rapidly passing over to the position that it must be either a treaty of reciprocity with the United States, or a hostile tariff that will cut our exports in two. As the Hon. John Charlton, M. P., writes in the January *Forum:*

> "Canada can give to the United States a kind of reciprocity that will make the volume of imports from that country nearly as lean and hungry as is the present scale of exportation to it. The simple formula for securing this result is to adopt the American tariff; and Canada is rapidly settling down to the conviction that there should be no unnecessary delay in taking this course, if proper concessions cannot be obtained."

These are but specimen clouds on our trade horizon. In them the Chamber of Commerce sees the promise of a disastrous storm. It is easy to pooh-pooh its words of alarm; to say that its members are only importers who are insidiously attacking the sacred tariff. They really are exporters as well as importers—exporters because they are importers—and their main anxiety just now is to avert a peril to our export trade. They are thinking of the farmer in the West and South, because they know that if his exports are checked by hostile legislation abroad, their imports will also be checked, and the general prosperity of the country impaired. Theirs is the plain business view of the situation. What, meanwhile, are our legislators at Washington doing? They are mumbling, with Senator Cullom, about their devotion to "the general principle of reciprocity," provided it does not run counter to "the general principle of protection." That is, they would be most happy to go North, if they could do it while walking South. If they had real statesmanship, they would be at least as far-sighted as business men, and would see to it that a stupid persistence in an outgrown and offensive and perfectly needless system of protection did not prevent this country from marching forward to that industrial and commercial conquest of the world of which it is capable.

THE GOVERNOR'S MESSAGE.

Gov. Odell's second annual message to the Legislature strengthens the impression which he has made during his first year in office. It is the work of an Executive who is, first of all, a business man, and who treats the affairs of the commonwealth from the standpoint of an administrator of a great corporation, in which the taxpayers are the stockholders. The Governor presents a very encouraging view of the State finances. The State debt, including the amount incurred for canal enlargement a few years ago, is only a trifle more than $10,000,000, and there was a balance of cash in the Treasury at the close of the fiscal year (September 30, 1901), of nearly $10,000,000. For the current fiscal year the revenues from indirect taxation are estimated at $15,000,000, leaving about $5,000,000 to be provided for from other sources. Of this sum, $4,200,000 can be taken from the surplus on hand. Therefore it is necessary to raise but $739,299 from the general property tax during the current year, and this is rendered necessary only by the Constitutional requirement of thirteen one-hundredths of a mill for the sinking fund. In other words, we have very nearly reached the ideal condition for which tax reformers have been so long striving, where the State can renounce direct taxation entirely, and leave the county boards to adjust their local taxation in their own way. Of course, the surplus in the Treasury now can be used only once. Therefore it is still necessary to provide a few millions from other indirect sources before the desired balance will be permanently attained.

The Governor makes some specific recommendations under this head which we think will command general approval. The measure to tax mortgages,

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which failed as presented in the Stranahan bill, is brought forward in a new shape. It proposes to subject mortgages not to a yearly tax, but to one tax, which may be called a recording tax. The Stranahan bill proposed a tax of five mills per annum. The Governor proposes a tax of five mills for recording the mortgage, and nothing afterward. The total amount of mortgages annually recorded in the State is about $600,000,000. The proposed tax would therefore yield $3,000,000, and this sum would almost close the gap which remains to be filled in the State revenues from independent sources. Those who are opposed to any tax on mortgages will oppose this. They will say that, no matter how the tax is levied, it will fall upon the borrower, since the lender, in this case, will deduct from the amount of the loan the sum needed to pay the recording tax. Granted; but the rate of interest is on the down grade, and this tells in favor of the borrower. Is it not right that the State should share in this advantage? This tax should be in lieu of the present tax on mortgages —the tax which, as the Governor says, reaches only the mortgages in the hands of executors and trustees, while individual holders escape it entirely.

Another suggestion in the message relates to the taxation of companies incorporated in other States, but having their offices and doing business in New York. This is the weightiest part of the message in its financial aspect, and the one which will cause the greatest public satisfaction. Hitherto the State has assumed that "foreign" corporations (meaning those of other American States) are taxed at the place of their domicile. Consequently, the shares of such corporations are non-taxable in the hands of a citizen of New York. This is theoretically the right system, but it was never intended to apply, and ought not to apply, to companies which go to New Jersey, or Delaware, or some other easy-going State, to procure a charter, while carrying on their principal business here. They do this to avoid their fair proportion of the tax which they ought to pay for the protection that the State and municipal governments of New York give them. Moreover, they make no concealment of the fact that this is the reason why they seek charters in other States. They say that they do so because the burdens of taxation in New York are so heavy. The burdens in New York are not heavy; but, whatever they may be, they are enhanced to the citizens who do pay by the amount of capital withdrawn from our own corporations and invested in those of New Jersey, Delaware, etc. This transference is a form of cheating which has received the sanction of law. The corporations are not to be blamed for taking advantage of the law as it exists. Their leading counsel naturally advise them to go to the cheapest market for their charters. They would be fools if they did not, but it is time for the State of New York to demand her just share in this harvest. The specific recommendation of the Governor is very moderate. It is that foreign corporations doing business here shall be required to file a certificate of their incorporation and pay annually a tax of one mill per dollar as a franchise tax. On condition of doing so, their stockholders resident in New York shall be exempt from taxation on the shares so held by them. This addition to the public revenues, and the proposed tax on the recording of mortgages, would supply the needful amount to make the State independent of the direct or general property tax. If Gov. Odell succeeds in accomplishing this aim, his Administration will be a memorable one from the business point of view.

We must pass over the Governor's important recommendations regarding the State institutions. Quite in line with the business sense which prompts his questioning of present methods is his protest against the abuses of our system of receiverships for insurance and banking corporations. We heartily endorse his recommendation that all proceedings affecting such corporations under the Banking and Insurance Departments shall be under their control during the liquidation, which should do away with the excessive fees that are now generally extorted. Mr. Odell's practical sense is shown in his advice that the code be amended so as to compel the argument of appeals in capital cases within six months after conviction; that the Governor be empowered to assign justices of the Supreme Court to districts where they are especially needed; and that it may be wise to allow the temporary designation of county judges to trial terms anywhere in the State whenever necessary to clear the calendar.

As will be seen, this message is fruitful in valuable recommendations. The paragraphs under the head "Home Rule for Cities" will be read with great interest, because they embody the Governor's ideas regarding excise legislation at this session. It all comes to this—that, while the Legislature might extend local option on the liquor traffic for weekdays so as to cover cities as well as towns, he thinks that no measure for local option on Sunday traffic should be passed unless the question be first submitted to the people of the whole State whether they will approve the idea of allowing such a departure from the fixed rules which have hitherto prevailed throughout the commonwealth, and a majority do so approve. There are no signs whatever that a movement for such a State referendum will be pushed, and, as the Governor commits himself against anything else, this means that nothing will be done by the present Legislature about Sunday saloon-opening.

MORE BISMARCK REVELATIONS.

"He spares me no shocks," said Bismarck once, referring to the Emperor William I., "and I should be all the better without those little letters in his own handwriting which he does me the honor to write." Two or three hundred of these little letters are contained in the Supplement to Prince Bismarck's 'Recollections,' lately published in Germany ('Anhang zu den Gedanken und Errinnerungen von Otto Fürst Bismarck'). These missives from monarch to Minister are mostly hurried notes of birthday and anniversary greeting, often announcing presents or new honors for Bismarck, and are, in general, of small account, either political or literary, with their characteristic interlarding of French idioms and phrases. How the grandson has *changé tout cela!* But at two or three places in the correspondence (for many of Bismarck's replies are given) we see a suggestive lifting of the historic curtain.

New light, for example, is thrown upon one of the disputed points relating to the war with France. This is the renewal in 1870 of the candidacy of Prince Leopold for the Spanish throne after it had been, on French protest, officially abandoned in 1869. When Bismarck wrote about the matter to Marshal Prim, he said: "Pray do not forget that the King is supposed to be ignorant of all this." This has been taken as a clear proof of the duplicity of either Bismarck or the King, or both. But a letter now printed from William, under date of February 26, 1870, makes it clear that, in the beginning at least, he was a total stranger to the plot to wave the Spanish red rag again in the face of France. He wrote to Bismarck:

> "The enclosure [not given] comes upon me like a bolt out of a clear sky. A Hohenzollern again a candidate for the throne of Spain! I suspected no word of this, and only lately was jesting with the Prince about the earlier bringing forward of his name, and both of them [father and son] dismissed the idea as a mere joke. When you have got the details, we must have a conference, although I, as head of the house, am *against* the affair."

Of course, the affair went on, nevertheless, and the world knows now how deliberately and astutely Bismarck employed the Hohenzollern candidacy to infuriate the French and make them declare that war in which he was burning to engage, if only he could avoid appearing the aggressor. A diplomat in Berlin said to Mr. Charles Lowe that he had heard Bismarck exclaim, in a moment of heat, "Oh, I have had experience in making other countries declare war upon Germany!" The Hohenzollern Spanish intrigue was one of the cases in point. We know now how Bismarck and Von Roon fairly forced Prince Anthony, on public grounds, to put forward Leopold again, and also how thunderstruck Bismarck was when the King telegraphed him from Ems that the candidacy was

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once more withdrawn and the whole trouble apparently settled. The disappointed Minister was about to resign and go back to Varzin for good, when his chance came to "edit" the famous later dispatch from Ems, and so get his war, after all. In the whole matter, it is now evident, he left his royal master very much in the dark, and worked secretly behind his back.

The other important revelations of the letters relate to the crisis of 1875. Early in that year Europe took alarm at the apparent intention of Germany to attack France before that country could get upon her feet with the new and enlarged army she was planning to create. The Berlin *Post* had an inspired article, as it was taken to be, "Is War in Sight?" All the talk of the General Staff was of provocation, anxiety, and impatience. An Imperial order suddenly forbade the exportation of horses from Germany. Moltke said openly to the Belgian Minister, "They may say what they like; I look only at facts. France has just added 144,000 men to her army. That means the offensive within a short time, and we ought not to wait for it." All these ominous signs, with the indiscreet babblings of Herr von Radowitz, supposed to be deep in Bismarck's confidence, were reported to Paris by the French Ambassador at Berlin, and led, as the Duke de Broglie states in his book, 'An Ambassador of the Vanquished,' to prompt representations by the French Foreign Office to both the English and Russian Governments. What the Czar and Gortchakoff did, leading up to their grandiloquent dispatch, "The maintenance of peace is now assured," has been published. We have Bismarck's own sneering account of their fussy and needless intervention, as he calls it. What England did to avert the threatened war has not been so clearly known. A letter of the Emperor's to Bismarck tells much, and suggests more.

It bore date of August 6, 1875, and, in the midst of some unimportant matters, gave extracts from a correspondence which had passed between the Kaiser and Queen Victoria, and of which he did not think it right to leave his Chancellor in ignorance. The royal letters had related to the threat of war with France, and William had assured the Queen that there was nothing in the alarmist rumors on that subject; that it gave him pain to suppose that she thought of himself as a disturber of the peace of Europe, since he was convinced that no one could provoke a war without exposing himself to the execration of the civilized world. Thereupon the Queen replied, so he wrote to Bismarck, that, "without my knowing it, others besides Moltke who were very near to me had openly talked of attacking France. But she would not go farther into the matter, since the whole had now fallen into oblivion." The Emperor added that he had written to thank the Queen for her friendly letter, and to say that "as she had named no names, he would make no further investigation." "I'm so sorry!" (*thut mir leid*) was, at this point, written in Bismarck's own hand upon the manuscript of William's letter.

The Chancellor's reply, a week later, is a masterpiece of evasion and cynicism. It would have been highly interesting, he said, if the Emperor had urged the Queen to give him the name of the threatener of war. That exalted lady must be very sure of her ground to have taken so weighty and so unfriendly a step. However, suggests the innocent Bismarck, she can have referred only to Count Münster, the German Ambassador in London. That diplomat, we may add, indignantly denied later that he had been guilty of any war talk, indiscreet or calculated. But Bismarck goes on to defend both him and Moltke, on the ground that their remarks about the advantage of speedily attacking France were purely "academic," and were intended merely to let the French know that they could not count upon immunity under all circumstances. The English Government would be wholly wrong in taking the unofficial language of an Ambassador so seriously, and hence he thought that Queen Victoria must have had "other grounds" (a clear reference to the hated Englishwoman in Berlin, the wife of the Crown Prince) for believing the rumors of war to be true. Nowhere does Bismarck intimate that he thought himself suspected, or deny that war would have been forced but for "the pressure of other Powers" brought to bear upon Germany by this unfriendly English initiative.

Did he really wish and intend another war with France in 1875? Was his anger at Russia, on whom he took sweet revenge at the Congress of Berlin, simply because of her interference with a deep game of his, or because the firm attitude of the Czar actually prevented a war? We may never know. Bismarck's diplomacy was confessed by himself to be wholly unscrupulous, and it was often so tortuous, so subterranean, so fertile in alternative expedients, that one can never be sure that his avowed aims were his real ones. A very remarkable letter of his to the Emperor, now first published, betrays his moral point of view, and his method. It related to the charges of double-dealing brought against him by the Italian Gen. La Marmora, in connection with the events of 1866. Why, said the honest Bismarck, who "feared nothing but God," the "only way in which I could thwart the policy of Napoleon was to make it clear to Benedetti and the Italians, who kept nothing from Napoleon, that I was perfectly willing to wander from the path of virtue, and only needed time to win over your Majesty." This manœuvre, he adds, was "very useful," and he quotes with gusto an old French proverb—"a pirate and a half to catch a pirate"—which his antagonists should have had in mind. From the whole body of Bismarck letters in the two volumes, in fact, one bears away a deepened impression of the man's extraordinary force, of his unrivalled intellectual power, and of his relentless grinding on his way to his goal, with the rush, and with about the morality, of an avalanche. His greatness, the immense rôle which he played in history, no man can doubt; but his lack of the finer personal and moral qualities, above all a certain want of magnanimity in his attitude towards his colleagues and successors, becomes clearer with every fresh publication from the archives, and cannot but dim his lasting fame.

THE REVIEWER'S RESPONSIBILITY.

The assertion, freely made in France, that criticism is creative literature, seems all the more audacious inasmuch as, in that country, criticism and current book-reviewing are very much one and the same thing. This seeming paradox is the result of literary traditions which are almost exclusively French. What these conditions are is charmingly illustrated in a recent anecdote of Sully-Prudhomme of the French Academy, recipient of the Nobel prize for literature.

In the spring of 1865 young Sully-Prudhomme had published, with the aid of a friend, his first volume, 'Stances et Poèmes.' The problem with his fellows of the schools who recognized in Sully a rising genius, was how to get the great Sainte-Beuve to give at least a paragraph in his "Nouveaux Lundis" to the youthful poet. Accordingly the young Gaston Paris—since renowned as philologer, critic, academician, and director of the Collège de France, then merely a philologer of considerable promise—who had the advantage of Sainte-Beuve's acquaintance, called at the great critic's apartment and left, with a discreet note, his friend's volume of verse. Every Monday the poet's circle of admirers turned eagerly to Sainte-Beuve's column in the *Constitutionnel*. The laggard critic wrote about everything else—on the old poets, on astronomical fantasies by Flammarion, worst of all, upon modern poets other than Sully. As the months went by, the indignation of these young people knew no bounds. It was seriously proposed to march *en masse* to the great critic's door, and *conspuer* him for his lack, not only of critical insight, but of common civility. Fortunately, wiser counsels prevailed, and the *censor literarum* of that day was spared such a serenade as the present *censor morum*, Senator Bérenger, has several times undergone at the hands of his student protégés. The review, a very favorable one, appeared before Sully's friends had thought out a parliamentary method of applying *force majeure* to the

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indolent author of the "Nouveaux Lundis."

The incident shows strikingly just what a literary review is in France. It is essentially an act of courtesy from a man of letters to a colleague. The reviewer, whose work is always signed, is responsible primarily to the brother-author whom he criticises, and after that to the craft of letters. Only very remotely is he answerable to the editor whom he serves, or to the general reading public. The result is that, with a free hand as to space and as to manner —except as far as considerations of professional courtesy may restrain him—the French reviewer is expected to give his work an absolutely personal flavor; and this means—in a country where are found writers with the engaging temperament of Anatole France and Jules Lemaître, with the doctrinaire tenacity of Brunetière and Doumic, with the scholarly clarity of view and sensitive appreciation of Gaston Paris and Gaston Boissier—that book-reviewing and literature may be as nearly one as they were when Sainte-Beuve was writing his "Causeries de Lundi."

There can be no doubt whatever that there is in France ten times as much readable reviewing as there is in England or America, while the skilled reviewer attains a popularity and prestige the like of which can be instanced in England only in the palmy days of the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Quarterly*. This is undoubtedly the reader's gain. Whether the great body of writers come off so well under this dispensation is open to question. To be benevolently reviewed by an elder brother of the craft is a rare good fortune for a young writer, and the most casual commendation from Jules Lemaître or Anatole France is worth more than the anonymous plaudits of the united press in England or America. But what of the great host of neglected authors in France? The dozen great critics who hold the fates of books in their hands review only what they will. Some of the critical journals in this country contrive to notice, in one way or another, practically every book which is submitted to their inspection. No French review of a popular kind so much as makes the attempt to keep up with the publishers' presses. Thus the great mass of books is relegated to oblivion, or, at best, to an obscure struggle for existence. Even the publishers advertise very parsimoniously, and, in the country which leads the world in the production of meritorious works in belles-lettres, the press gives a very minimum of attention to the producers of this class of literature. To be shorn of notoriety is their melancholy lot.

Since the machinery for puffing up an ephemeral reputation is much less highly developed in France than in the English-speaking countries, the French reader is spared the flood of perfunctory and even ignorant reviews which besets the English and American public. On the other hand, it is a question if the French do not unduly submit their literary judgment to the charming and sometimes capricious personality of their great critics. In many ways the comparatively impersonal method of the anonymous reviewer is fairer, both to the public and to the author, while critical journals which have represented consistently a fixed attitude towards literature attain an authority and influence that no individual critic can ever enjoy.

If America ever adopts the French mode of personal and eclectic reviewing, it will be less because it is converted to a new theory than because it is compelled by relentless conditions. Already it is impossible to notice, even if it were worth while, anything like the total product of the publishers. We admire the diligence of those journals which undertake to review all the books that pass through their offices, and marvel at the fortitude of the public which reads this mass of book notices; but the *Nation* is unable either to imitate the thoroughness of its contemporaries in this respect, or to strain in like manner the indulgence of its readers. Some two thousand books are sent to us every year by the publishers. All of these are promptly acknowledged in "Books of the Week." About one-half, and the majority of these in very brief form, are reviewed. If we always consulted our own inclination, or primarily the pleasure of our reviewers, the list might be still smaller. It would be very easy to fall back upon the French principle that the reviewer is bound only by the comity of the craft; but we feel that it is a healthful tradition that his responsibility is primarily to the public, which expects of him correct information and sound judgment, and hence that the reviewer, in his choice of books, must be guided by some broader principle than personal preference for the book, personal liking for the writer, or even natural benevolence for the beginner.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION AND AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.

CAMBRIDGE, January 1, 1902.

The Modern Language Association, which met in Cambridge on Thursday, December 26, for a three-days' session, has reached its feminine if not its masculine majority. Founded in 1883 at a meeting in New York city, it has just celebrated its eighteenth birthday. The Association began with something over a hundred members, recruited during the first year of its life. It has now more than six hundred, not counting the two-score scholars from different parts of Europe who have accepted honorary membership with it. Its first volume of publications covered the first two years of its existence. It now prints each year, in regular quarterly instalments, a volume of some six hundred pages. It has outgrown a single meeting, and each year the Central Division convenes at the same time as the parent association in some place nearer the homes of members in the Central West. What has been done for the advancement of knowledge in this time? The tale is best told by the sixteen completed volumes which bear the Association's name. From the first these have been increasingly valuable, until now they contain many of the most important contributions to the modern literatures printed in any language. It is not strange that the members of this vigorous and growing body should feel some elation, some reason for congratulation over the past and hopefulness for the future.

There is also cause for congratulation in the meeting just closed, which has been one of the most successful in the history of the organization. From the opening session, when the Association was welcomed by the felicitous words of President Eliot, until Saturday noon, when the members gathered at the farewell lunch in University Hall, there was intense interest and no little enthusiasm. Not only did no unfortunate incident mar the meeting in any way, but the sessions were attended by more than the usual number of attentive listeners to the papers read and discussed. It was felt that every part of the programme had something not to be lightly missed. This does not mean that all did not also enjoy the social part of the convention, the notably pleasant reception by President and Mrs. Eliot, the charming talk on "The College Professor and the Public" by Mr. Bliss Perry of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the numerous less important occasions for friendly greetings with others working in similar fields, or equally agreeable discussions of many problems connected with the routine work and investigation. All these were a by no means insignificant part of this educational gathering.

It is true that this convention differed in one respect from those of recent years. Such a gathering is always in one sense a small one. Only about one-fifth of the members of the Association ever attend, though nearly as many more are usually in session with the Central Division, as this year at the University of Illinois. But besides, owing to the extreme distance from the centre of the country, the representation was this year mainly from New England and the adjacent parts of New York State. A fringe of other States was represented by one or two members each, the largest number from Pennsylvania and Michigan, two from Ohio, and one each from Indiana and Wisconsin. The South, including Maryland and Kentucky, was fairly represented by ten members. If, however, the representation of New England was disproportionately large in number of members present, the Northern States west of New England more than contributed their share of papers to be read, or "read by title"—that is, presented for publication. To the programme the New England men contributed thirteen papers—or fourteen, if the report of the Pedagogical Section be counted. The Northern States west of New England were represented by an equal number, fourteen, if one from west of the Mississippi is included, as indeed it should be. The South had naturally the smallest representation; only two papers coming from that section.

In point of subject the distribution of papers is always a matter of comment. It had

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been apparent for some time that those on English language and literature were considerably more numerous than those on any of the other modern languages forming a part of the Association. This is, of course, not only natural but right, and would be equally true of the mother tongue in any convention of scholars in any nation. This year, therefore, it is not strange that there should have been fourteen papers by professors and instructors in English to eight by those teaching German and seven by those teaching French and the other Romance languages. In English the papers were particularly well distributed over the whole field of our literature. Two treated subjects in Old English, three Middle English, four the modern literature, and five were of general scope, though naturally related in an indirect way to the modern period.

Beyond this it is not easy, in an untechnical account, to give an adequate idea of all parts of the programme. To say that Professor Cook of Yale proved the runic inscriptions on the Ruthwell cross to be later than usually supposed, and certainly considerably later than the Northumbrian poet Cynewulf; or that Dr. Schofield of Harvard gave a new and exceedingly important account of the home of the King Horn story, will convey but a slight idea of the importance which scholars attach to such close investigations. Such papers deal with a single point, or a very few points, but at their best settle these once for all, doing away for ever with much obscurity or useless discussion, and sometimes throwing a flood of light on kindred subjects. Nor is this a slight advantage. When they have been read and published, they become the property of every teacher who keeps up with his subject, and displace, in one little corner of knowledge, an obscure or imperfect or false statement with exactness and truth. They delight those who abhor misstatement even when not directly affecting character and life. But, besides such technical papers, there are, at every convention of the Association, a goodly number of more general nature, which would interest any intelligent hearer.

We may well begin with the address of Professor Sheldon, President of the Association, though this was not given until Thursday evening, the second session. Professor Sheldon spoke in his characteristically cautious way of "Practical Philology." emphasizing the linguist's relation to grammar and dictionary, and cautioning even him against neglecting the dictates of custom, which establishes somewhat different standards from those to be expected in a natural development of language. The philologist recognizes evolution of linguistic forms; he must still acknowledge, as must every educated person, the claims of fashion. Professor Sheldon also expressed a wish for a broader recognition in our dictionaries of both natural and acquired forms of the spoken language, and deplored in the strongest terms any conflict between the philologist and his sometime antagonist the literary critic—a sentiment which received the hearty approbation of his audience. One paper also in the session of Thursday afternoon not only was of general character, but brought out some profitable discussion. This was the report of the Pedagogical Section by its Secretary, Professor Mead of Wesleyan, on the value of rhetorical teaching through much practice in writing and individual correction—a practice now so general in the leading colleges and universities. The subject was suggested by an opposing view in the *Century* a year or so ago, the writer of which advocated a study of English literature without theme-writing as equally effective—a most remarkable position. It is not surprising that the paper read by Professor Mead, and made up from the opinions of various instructors over the country, showed a large majority decidedly in favor of the present plan, in spite of the vast amount of labor and expense involved. The one other paper of the afternoon which could not but interest every American was that of Dr. Walz of Harvard, on three Swabian journalists and the American Revolution. This presented in an entertaining fashion a careful investigation of the interest in the Revolution on the part of German writers, among them the poet Schiller.

Friday morning's session was introduced by an excellent paper on the influence of Montaigne upon Shakspere, by Miss Hooker of Vassar College. This influence, while before recognized, was exhaustively treated by the writer, who proved conclusively that one other must be added to the number of writers who have found the great French essayist a mine of philosophic truth and epigrammatic statement. But the paper which afforded the most entertainment and brought out the greatest amount of discussion in the whole convention, was that of Professor Thomas of Columbia on the amelioration of our spelling. Professor Thomas is not a "fonetic," much less a fanatic, reformer. From the paper read he certainly deserves to be characterized as a wit, with mind and heart upon the right side. He brought forward no radical scheme for accomplishing the much desired result; he posed as no self-satisfied leader in a great movement; but, with many a witty sally at the expense of extremists on both sides, and a quite inimitable manner which disarmed criticism from the start, he presented the anomalies and absurdities of our present cacographic mode, and added one very practical suggestion toward "amelioration." This was the education of our common-school teachers in the history of our spelling, the manner in which the astounding and absurd anomalies grew up, and the senselessness of preserving what has long become outgrown and useless. Such a plan would bring more quickly than anything else, he thought, a realization of the unnecessary burden upon young and old of what we call, with unperceived sarcasm, our "orthography," and hasten the time when even the school-boy would assist in rebelling against the illiteracy in form of a great civilized language. Professor Thomas also called attention to a fact which should be more carefully regarded. Our American copyright law, requiring books to be put in type in this country in order to obtain copyright, is really responsible for a deal of British instead of American spelling, where the latter is simpler. On the other hand, perhaps the chaos which this is bringing, in a small way, may assist in making evident the burden, and eventually in throwing it off.

The papers of Friday afternoon were excellent (not to deny the same characterization to those of other sessions). That of Dr. Schofield has been alluded to already. Mr. Hoyt of the Harvard Graduate School spoke on the legends of Horn and Beves, a study of the relationship existing between these two metrical romances of Middle English. The one other paper which deserves special notice was that of Professor Wood of Johns Hopkins on "Literary Adaptations in Gerhart Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*." At this session, also, the Association was again entertained by a paper, presented by Professor Scott of Michigan, on a "List of Hated Words." Professor Scott gave many amusing examples of words which had excited the antipathy of various persons, and some of the amusing reasons assigned for their dislike. The paper was a study in the psychology of language, to which, it may be said, a philological analysis would have lent some helpful suggestions. In the last session of the Association two papers were of sufficiently general interest to be briefly mentioned. One was by Professor Hulme of Western Reserve University on the influence of Chaucer upon Milton, which, the writer thought, had not been sufficiently recognized by critics. The other was by Professor Baldwin of Yale, who showed that the influence of Sterne's works upon French literature had been much underestimated.

The American Dialect Society met as usual under the friendly patronage of its elder sister, with which it has in many respects a common interest. Partly on this account, the Society makes little of its annual meeting, so far as programme is concerned. Its publication, *Dialect Notes*, is carried on without previous presentation of papers at an annual conference. The short session on Saturday morning was occupied wholly with brief reports of the financial and other status of the Society, and the election of officers for the ensuing year. With such a modest gathering, each year, always at the time and place of the Modern Language Association, the Dialect Society quietly carries on its investigations, and publishes its results as often as may be. This year, it is true, the Society was allowed for the first time a paper on the general programme—a desirable way of calling more public attention to its labors. As was appropriate, too, for a first year under this new arrangement, the paper, by Professor Emerson, the Secretary, was of more general character, explaining the aims and methods of the Society, answering criticisms that have been made, and urging the importance of the work from every standpoint. Professor Emerson called attention to the somewhat different character of dialect work in Germany and England, and the wisdom of following both models in our American field. He emphasized especially the need of local glossaries, to be based first of all upon the collections of Americanisms and other dialectal words already in print, and supplemented by such new words as may be locally gathered. There should be one or more of these for each State, after which there would be some prospect of combining them all in a dialect dictionary for the whole country. The reports at the annual meeting showed the Society in as prosperous condition as at any time in the past; but more members are needed, and more active workers, in order to accomplish all that is desired.

N. M.

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LORD ROSEBERY.

OXFORD, December 20, 1901.

Lord Rosebery has performed one remarkable achievement: he has made himself for the moment the interesting man of English politics. We have all of us been talking, during last week, of what he was going to say at Chesterfield; we are all of us talking this week of what he has said. We are all of us wondering what is the real meaning of his speech, and some of us are wondering whether it means anything at all. The readers, then, of the *Nation* may possibly like to know some of the different views which, to judge from what one reads and hears, are at the present moment taken in England of Lord Rosebery's character and position.

Consider first the opinion formed of his Lordship by his many friends and admirers. He is, according to their view, the coming man. His ability is undoubted. He has been a successful Foreign Secretary. His tenure of the Premiership, it is true, was not marked by any kind of triumph, but his failure was due partly, it may be, to the disloyalty of colleagues, and certainly to the unkindness of fortune, which had placed him in a false position where no cleverness could avert absolutely certain defeat. And even after the rout of the Gladstonian Liberals, his Lordship, it will be said, remained the most remarkable of the Liberal leaders. His resignation of leadership has placed him in a situation absolutely unlike that occupied by any other politician. He stands before the country as a man who has risen above and is independent of party, and is prepared to be rather the servant of the nation than the leader of a faction.

This claim (they continue) he has made good by his recent speech, for he has spoken with a distinctness and plainness unknown to the chief men of the Opposition or to leading Ministers. He has uttered words suited, to use his own expression, for the Palace of Truth. The best evidence of the orator's sagacity and honesty is, that men of all parties find in his speech something to praise, and also something with which they individually do not agree. He has avoided at once the cant of pharisaic Liberalism and the cant of official optimism. He has summed up in the best words the best thoughts of us all, and, while he has pointed out the grave errors committed by the Opposition, he has also denounced the terrible shortcomings of the Government. He has warned the partisans who call themselves Liberals that they are many of them in character Tories, who cling to obsolete shibboleths at variance with the facts and the requirements of the times; he has told the Ministers who boast of their Imperialism that their blunders threaten the existence of the Empire, and that their incompetence may lose England South Africa, just as the dulness and the obstinacy of George the Third and Lord North lost England the Thirteen Colonies. He has shown himself the leader for whom we are all in search, who can rise above party and guide the country through the perils of a serious crisis. Lord Rosebery, in short, in the eyes of admirers who are ready to be his followers, if only he will consent to be their chief, is the statesman who can at the same time renovate the Liberal party and bring England triumphantly through the present war; and, to judge from Lord Rosebery's attitude and speeches, he himself shares the hopes of his admirers, and expects to prove the heaven-sent pilot destined to weather the storm.

Take next the judgment which may be passed on Lord Rosebery by less partial critics. To such candid friends—and his Lordship has few foes—his ability and his bona-fide desire to play a patriotic part may seem past dispute; but when this admission is made, his claim to become the leader of the nation may well be open to grave question. He has not, it will be said, given proof of any extraordinary capacity; his career as a Premier was marked by failure. The admitted difficulties of his position, though it was one to a certain extent of his own choosing, may indeed be an excuse for want of success; but the mere fact that a statesman has, on the one occasion when his powers were put to the test, shown himself unable to cope with the demands of a political crisis, is not of itself a reason for intrusting him at a most critical moment with the fortunes of the state; nor is it possible in 1901 to forget entirely the transactions of 1893 and 1894.

Lord Rosebery, indeed, according to the construction most generally put upon his speech, wishes now to have done with home rule. Unfortunately, the question will suggest itself, Why did his Lordship ever become a Home-Ruler? Admit, as fairness requires, that he was never very zealous for home rule; still, when he became the follower and later the successor of Mr. Gladstone, he must have believed that the policy of home rule was recommended by the dictates of political expediency. What ground, then, it may be urged, has any Unionist for trusting in the soundness of his Lordship's judgment? The question is the more serious because parts of the speech delivered at Chesterfield suggest a fear that Lord Rosebery is in 1901 misjudging the intentions of the Boers very much as he must in 1893 have misjudged the policy of the Irish Nationalists. He assumes that the Boers, in spite of the conduct and the language of their leaders, are not really fighting for independence, and are willing to seek terms of peace. This assumption bears a close resemblance to the credulity of Gladstonians who, with the evidence collected by the Parnell Commission before their eyes, persisted in the belief that the Nationalist leaders were at bottom loyal to the United Kingdom, or would certainly become so from the moment that the establishment of an Irish Parliament and an Irish Government should make it possible to impede the action both at home and abroad of the Imperial Government.

Let this, however, pass. Assume that in politics you must allow the existence of some sort of statute of limitations, and that the mere lapse of seven years is sufficient of itself to free a politician from liability for bygone errors of judgment. Even if this enormous concession be made, it is still (it will be said) very difficult to accept Lord Rosebery at the value put upon him by his adherents. The policy expounded in his long and able speech hardly differs essentially from the policy actually pursued by Lord Salisbury and his colleagues. In common with every Unionist, Lord Rosebery manfully maintains the justice and the expediency of the war; he repudiates all the charges of barbarism and cruelty brought against generals or soldiers; he trusts to the generalship of Lord Kitchener; he has no wish to recall Lord Milner; he maintains that the duty and necessity of the moment is to carry the war at all costs to a successful issue, and clearly believes that the annexation of the African republics to the British Empire is an irreversible act, commanded by considerations of necessity and justice. He, it is true, criticises with force many of the acts and words of the Government. So, too, do many Unionists. No human being either outside or, for that matter, inside the Cabinet can deny the commission of grave errors; but then common sense suggests the reflection, to which Lord Rosebery apparently gives little weight, that retrospective criticism is, even when sound and effective, no guarantee that the critic will, on the occurrence of a sudden crisis, show more wisdom or foresight than has been exhibited by the working statesmen whose errors it is so easy to deride. Even if it be admitted, as many will be glad to concede, that Lord Rosebery's urbanity and knowledge of the world might have saved him from some of the minor mistakes of language or of taste committed by particular Ministers, it is difficult to see any proof that he would, on the whole, have conducted the affairs of the nation with greater and more rapid success than the men at present in office.

The real cause, however, it will be said, for hesitating to accept Lord Rosebery as the leader who can rise above party and become the embodiment of the national will, lies, after all, far deeper than any doubts suggested either by the events of his past career or by the nature of his practical suggestions for the termination of the war. It is not clear that he possesses the instinct of leadership. All the men who from time to time have led the people of England have had but one characteristic in common. They have all been endowed with boldness and decision; they have all been men of strong and some of them men of iron wills. Can as much, it will be asked, be said of Lord Rosebery? The answer must appear to candid friends or hostile critics to be at best doubtful. A study of his career rather suggests that he is by nature the skilful and intelligent man of letters who, just because he stands a little outside the labors and the turmoil which occupy and harass responsible politicians, sees at moments a little further than do statesmen engaged in the wearying work of government and administration. But the habit of easy meditation detached from the responsibility of laborious action is not generally found favorable to strength of will. Literary talent is undoubtedly closely allied with one characteristic: the man of letters is almost always able and inclined to study his own attitude. Lord Rosebery may seem to critical observers an actor who first poses before himself with perfect honesty as the true patriot, and then, by the dignity of the attitude which has become natural to him, impresses the public with his own belief in his sagacity and his patriotism.

My aim has been to describe two different views of Lord Rosebery, each of which is at this moment, I believe, taken by many Englishmen. Which, if either, is the true

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view of his character, is a matter for the future to decide. AN OBSERVER.

THE GRANDE MADEMOISELLE.—I.

PARIS, December 19, 1901.

The memoirs of the Grande Mademoiselle, daughter of Gaston d'Orléans and a niece of Louis XIII., are in every historical library. They are a very valuable document on a highly interesting period—all the more, perhaps, as they are very artless and devoid of all literary pretensions. Madame Arvède Barine has used them largely in writing 'La Jeunesse de la Grande Mademoiselle (1627-1652).' It is very readable, and has all the merit of her former works, already very numerous. Among them I will cite only 'Portraits of Women [Mrs. Carlyle, George Eliot],' 'Princesses and Great Ladies [Marie Mancini, Queen Christine, the Duchess du Maine, the Margrave de Bayreuth].' If I had to criticise these historical studies, I should say that the author does not enter enough into the spirit and atmosphere of old times; she cannot help being very subjective, and she interjects here and there words and remarks which savor too much not only of the present time, but even of Parisian life. There is at times in the expression of her thoughts what I should almost call a journalistic turn, which produces on the reader the effect of a dissonance in a succession of grave musical sounds.

The "Grande Mademoiselle" is certainly one of the most original figures of her time. "One cannot say," writes Arvède Barine, "that she figured in the foreground. Hers was a rather small genius . . . But this adventurous and picturesque woman was *eminently one of those personages* whom Emerson called representative. The spectacle of her agitated existence is a marvellous commentary on the profound transformation which occurred, towards the midst of the seventeenth century, in the sentiments of France." This transformation coincided with the civil wars and the troubles of the Fronde; and the Grande Mademoiselle was one of the actors in the Fronde. "In the first part of her life, none of the great ladies of the Fronde was more than she a heroine of Corneille, none had a more boundless desire for greatness, a more superb contempt of low passions—and among these Mademoiselle placed love." Generalizations are always dangerous: Arvède Barine would have it that the Grande Mademoiselle's early career is typical of the Cornelian spirit, while in the latter part of her life she represents the Racinian type. *Pauline* of "Polyeucte", and *Phèdre* of Racine's tragedy are two representatives of the passion of love, who, in Mme. Barine's mind, show the transformation that took place in the French mind and French manners from the time of Louis XIII. to the time of Louis XIV.

The Grande Mademoiselle, Duchess de Montpensier, was the daughter of Gaston d'Orléans and of a distant cousin of the royal family, Marie de Bourbon, Duchess de Montpensier. It is difficult to be too hard on Gaston d'Orléans; his portrait by Arvède Barine is only too exact. I will cite it, chiefly in order to show this author's *manière:*

"Her father," she says, "resembled our decadents. His nerves were out of order, his will abolished, yet he dreamed of accomplishing rare and singular deeds. . . . He was, *en chair et en os*, in the seventeenth century, the Prince whom our modern writers believe they have invented, and whom they like to introduce on the stage or in their novels; the living anachronism who has inherited the traditions of rugged ancestors, but who can place at their service only an enervated and unbalanced character."

At the age of eighteen, Gaston d'Orléans possessed the duchies of Orléans, of Chartres, the county of Blois, and a revenue of a million of livres. His wife was the richest heiress in the kingdom. She brought in dower the sovereignty of Dombes; the principality of La Roche-sur-Yon; the Duchies of Montpensier, Châtellerault, and St. Fargeau; a number of estates. Mademoiselle was born at the Louvre on the 29th of March, 1627; her mother died the seventh day after her birth. The child was educated at the Tuileries, which had not yet the dimensions they afterward acquired, and were then, so to speak, in the country.

She had a royal establishment, an army of servants and attendants. Her governess was a Madame de Saint-Georges, who knew the court well. She confessed afterwards that she was very badly educated; people spoke to her only of her high rank and of her great wealth. Madame de Saint-Georges was old-fashioned, and not one of those whom Molière afterwards described in the "Femmes Savantes." She believed that the greatest Princess in France knew enough if she knew how to read and write. The Memoirs of Mademoiselle show us the court of Louis XIII. and the great events of the time as they might be viewed by the most ignorant child. Cardinal Richelieu appeared to her a sort of monster, always ready to interfere with the amusements of the court. Speaking of the time when her father had left France, had become a rebel, and had remarried secretly with a sister of the Duke of Lorraine, she says:

"A great many things happened at that time. I was a child. I took part in nothing and could remark nothing. All I remember is a ceremony in which the Duke d'Elbeuf and the Marquis de la Vieuville were degraded from their orders. I saw their arms taken from the rank of the others; I asked the reason. I was told that this injury was done to them because they had followed Monsieur. I immediately began to weep."

When Mademoiselle came of age, the choice of a husband became the great preoccupation of her life. Would her husband be a King, or merely a Royal Highness? The first candidate, who amused her only for a moment, was the Count de Soissons, who was commonly called Monsieur le Comte, a cousin of hers, a brilliant soldier, but a very ordinary man, who had followed the cause of Monsieur in his second rebellion. M. Le Comte was killed at the battle of La Marfée, and Mademoiselle understood, so she says simply, that "they were not made for each other." Mademoiselle cast eyes on the Cardinal-Infanta, Ferdinand, the third son of Philip III., who commanded in Flanders the army of the King of Spain. He was Archbishop of Toledo, but he had not been ordained as a priest, and he might take a wife. The Cardinal-Infanta died on the 9th of November, 1641, after a very short illness. We read in the memoirs that the Spaniards were accused of having poisoned him, "for fear lest he should make himself master of Flanders by an alliance with France."

Soon afterwards the famous conspiracy of Saint-Mars opened the eyes of Mademoiselle to her own father's character. "Monsieur," says Arvède Barine, "surpassed himself in this crisis. He trembled and cried, he lied and denounced, with so much abjectness that the noise of his shame filled France and penetrated the Tuileries, where it threw Mademoiselle in despair. Her father deranged her theological ideas regarding Princes of the blood. How could a being who partook of divinity be so utterly contemptible?" When the Queen Henrietta of England, daughter of Henri IV. and wife of Charles I., took refuge in France, she thought of marrying her son to Mademoiselle; but the Prince of Wales was then very timid. He was younger by three years than Mademoiselle, and made a very unpleasant impression on her by his awkwardness. She tells us that at a representation of "Orphée" at the Palais-Royal, where she sat on a throne, magnificently dressed, with the Prince of Wales at her feet, she took pity on him. "My heart as well as my eyes looked down upon him; I had it in my mind to marry the Emperor."

She was for a time possessed with the idea of becoming Empress; so much so that when Ferdinand III. took a wife, she said: "The Empress is *enceinte* and will die in her confinement." Curiously enough, she did die, and Mademoiselle's hopes were revived.

"The desire to be Empress," she says, "which followed me everywhere, and which always seemed to me to be near fruition, made me think it would be well to cultivate beforehand habits which might be in conformity with the Emperor's humor. I had heard that he was devout, and, following his example, I became so devout myself that, after having feigned some time to be so, I experienced for a week the desire to make myself a nun at the Carmelites, but I confided this to nobody. I was so occupied with it that I could neither eat nor sleep. . . . I can say that during that week the Empire was nothing to me. I was not without some vanity in the idea of leaving the world at such a conjuncture."

This is certainly a most extraordinary confession, and we must agree with Arvède Barine when she says: "Having begun for political reasons to make the gestures and take the attitudes of devotion, she fell into her own trap and deceived herself to the point of wishing to enter a convent. There is no more curious example of the power of auto-suggestion."

After a short time, Mademoiselle's religious crisis was over, and she threw herself into politics, like so many great ladies of the time. "We have three ladies," wrote Mazarin to Don Louis de Haro, "who would be capable of governing three great kingdoms or of turning them topsy-turvy: the Duchess of Longueville, the Princess Palatine, the Duchess of Chevreuse." Her adventures are a part of the history of France. The daughter of Gaston d'Orléans had grown up in the belief that the Orléans branch of the royal family might reach the throne. From Charles VIII. to Louis XIII. the crown had been transmitted only three times from father to son. Before the birth of Louis XIV. Gaston thought himself almost on the throne. At the age of nine Louis XIV. was very ill, and it was thought for a moment that he would die.

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Louis XIII. was in very delicate health. Besides the Orléans branch, there was a third, the branch of Condé, which was a little further from the throne, but the members of which were remarkable for their brilliant qualities. It is, therefore, not surprising that Mademoiselle prepared herself for the most exalted career. Her vanity was boundless; her ambition vague, but all the more ardent.

Correspondence.

VERBAL PREJUDICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An *obiter dictum* in a paper which I read before the Modern Language Association last week has since appeared in a number of newspapers in a curiously distorted version. The following is a sample:

"A professor of the University of Michigan, being desirous of ascertaining the most hated word in connection with spelling-reform investigation, wrote to a thousand persons for their opinion, and was surprised when the majority replied that the most hated word was 'woman.'"

What I actually said was as follows:

"A considerable number of persons hate the plural form *women*, as being weak and whimpering, though the singular, *woman*, connotes for the same persons ideas of strength and nobility. It is for this reason, perhaps, that *woman's building, woman's college*, and the like have supplanted in popular speech the forms *women's building, women's college*, etc. It is noteworthy, also, that, in the titles of women's magazines and the names of women's clubs, the singular in most instances has been chosen instead of the more logical plural."

It will be noticed that *women* was not the best-hated word on my list. That bad eminence was reserved for *victuals*.

I take the opportunity to say that any one who has violent antipathies to particular words or phrases, not traceable to the meaning, will do me a favor by corresponding with me. All that I wish is (1) a list of such *verba non grata*, with (2) reasons for the dislikes, where reasons can be given.

Fred Newton Scott.

University of Michigan, December 30, 1901.

Notes.

We can make but a comparatively meagre selection from Macmillan Co.'s very numerous spring announcements: 'Napoleon Bonaparte,' by Thomas E. Watson, and yet another biography by J. H. Rose; the Life of Sir George Grove, by C. L. Graves; the third and last volume of Mrs. Hamilton's translation of Gregorovius's 'History of the City of Rome in the Middle Ages'; the second volume of Prof. William Ridgeway's 'Early Age of Greece'; 'A Short History of Germany,' by Ernest F. Henderson; 'The Story of the Mormons,' by William A. Linn; 'Source Readers of American History,' by Prof. A. B. Hart; John Richard Green's 'Oxford Studies'; 'History: Suggestions as to its Study and Teaching,' by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon, from whom we are to have also 'A History of the Appointing Power'; 'The Mastery of the Pacific,' by A. R. Colquhoun; 'The Island of Formosa: A Complete Account of its Condition, Political and Industrial,' by James W. Davidson, United States Consul; 'The Principles of Western Civilization,' by Benjamin Kidd; 'A History of Political Theories, Ancient and Mediæval,' by Prof. William A. Dunning; 'Democracy and Social Ethics,' by Jane Addams; a translation by Frederick Clarke of Ostrogorski's 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties'; 'The Genesis of Modern Constitutions,' by Prof. James Harvey Robinson; 'The Development of Cabinet Government in England,' by Mary Taylor Blauvelt; 'The Theory of Prosperity,' by Prof. Simon Patten; 'The Ivory Workers of the Middle Ages,' by A. M. Cust; 'Lessons from Greek Pottery,' by John H. Huddilston; 'The Chatsworth Van Dyck Sketch-Book,' with letterpress by Lionel Cust; 'The Diamond Mines of South Africa: Some Account of their Rise and Development,' by Gardner F. Williams; 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood; 'What Is Shakspere?—An Introduction to the Great Plays,' by Prof. L. A. Sherman; 'Shakspere in Tale and Verse,' by Lois G. Hufford; and 'The English Chronicle-Play: A Study in the Popular Literature concerning Shakspere,' by Prof. Felix E. Schelling.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'The Cloistering of Ursula,' a romance by Clinton Scollard.

In Prof. George R. Carpenter's brief life of Longfellow (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) the excellent series of "Beacon Biographies" is prosperously continued. Considering the present widespread reaction against Longfellow's old-time vogue, Professor Carpenter's task was not of the easiest; but he has performed it in a fashion at once workmanlike and sympathetic. The account of events in the poet's life is clear and consistent, and sufficiently enlivened by local color. Indeed, with the full records edited by Mr. Samuel Longfellow, this part of the work was doubtless comparatively easy. The narrative of less external happenings in the development of Longfellow's mind and art is fairly intimate and no less clear. The final criticism of Longfellow's poetry is discriminating and just, yet rather unusually appreciative of his real merits. In short, the little book exhibits, in the phrase of the prospectus of the series, "the best contemporary point of view." Its chief virtues are clarity and good sense.

Mr. Strutt's 'Fra Filippo Lippi' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) is one of those compilations for which there seems a great demand, and the production of which at a moment's notice has been made easy. The receipt is so much Morelli, so much more of certain of his followers, a pinch of Cavalcaselle, sprinkled over with references to authorities (chiefly such Germans as have been of small use to the writer), full of nice plums in the form of illustration, and salted with caustic remarks against the laborious students who really "fished the murex up." There is not an idea, nor even a fact, in Mr. Strutt's book due to Mr. Strutt. Yet we can, for that reason, perhaps, sincerely recommend it. All that the person of culture need know about Fra Filippo he will find in this book. There are a good number of errors due to unfitness and haste, but they are not vital.

'Bright Days in Merrie England,' by A. Vandoren Honeyman (Plainfield, N. J.; Honeyman & Co.), is a pleasantly, though most naïvely written record of four-in-hand journeys in England. It is no more than a guide-book to famous roads and inns and show-places in several counties, but its numerous illustrations, from photographs, give it a certain interest for those who care for rural England, and the tourist may find his profit in the writer's sprightly comments on the comforts and discomforts that attend coaching. Oxford was the main starting-point of these excursions, but there are also chapters on the Isle of Wight and the English lakes. The literary gossip is sometimes amusing, as when, in comment on a picture of Marie Corelli's house in Stratford-on-Avon, we are told that "her splendid literary work has conferred additional honor upon this already world-famous town." The naïve enthusiasm and uncavilling enjoyment that pervade the book are as rare as pleasing.

The quaint volume by Jane De Forest Shelton, entitled 'The Salt-Box House: Eighteenth Century Life in a New England Hill Town' (Baker & Taylor Co.), takes its name from the local designation of the house built and occupied for five generations by the family whose history is herein given. Heredity, social position, and means were more favorable to this family than environment, which, from their isolation in a remote corner of Connecticut, made them less conspicuous in public affairs than many of inferior standing. On the other hand, we have an exceedingly pleasant picture of a comparatively rare phase of New England colonial life—that of a well-to-do family of the Church of England, with slaves and ample household appointments, somewhat after the pattern of English country gentry, yet with a distinct American flavor. We accompany it from one generation to another with all their widening interests and varying affiliations. The book is remarkable for the minuteness and accuracy with which every detail of domestic life is depicted. As is truly remarked in the preface: "There is not recorded a custom or a costume, an article of use or adornment, a habit of life or of manner, for which there is not authority for the period and locality designated." The gradual decay, through removal and thinning out, of the family life exemplifies the process by which so many homes in rural New England districts have been desolated. The final occupant of "the Salt-Box House," while of the ancient-maiden type indigenous to New England, was as unique and characteristic as the house she represented. The illustrations of this work are interesting and effective.

In 'The Wild Fowlers,' by Charles Bradford (Putnams), we have duck-shooting treated in colloquial fashion. The opening chapter, "Point-Shooting for Black Duck," suggests Mr. Barlow and his two famous pupils, Sandford and Merton. In the present instance that eminently good man and the two youths are represented by Dr. B———, and one "Peritus," a young companion. An attendant, in the person of a professional gunner (who speaks the dialect which one never encounters outside of works of fiction), is used to set decoys and as a foil to emphasize the correct language of his employer and his young friend. The copious conversation of Dr. B.——— and "Peritus" serves as a medium to impart information in regard to "shot-guns, ammunition, the natural history of wild-fowl, and

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the chivalric sportsman's best method of taking the game." The remaining chapters are devoted to "battery-shooting," and are equally marked by garrulity. If there be one reason for printing this little volume, it may be found in the reproduction of two very beautiful drawings of wild fowl, by Mr. A. Thorburn.

The 'Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament,' by Frederic G. Kenyon, Assistant Keeper of Manuscripts, British Museum (Macmillan), while not a rival of "the standard works of Gregory and Scrivener," contains matter more recently available. On the palæographical side it is thorough and accurate, as the author's position would lead one to expect. The critical position is substantially that of Hort, but Mr. Kenyon wisely declines to accept the paramount authority of the Codex Vaticanus. To the four forms of the text named by Westcott and Hort: Syrian, Neutral, Alexandrian, and Western, he applies the first four letters of the Greek Alphabet. The more recent theories of Blass, while fairly stated, are regarded as not proven. The sixteen facsimiles in the volume are interesting, but in some of them the size of the letters has been so reduced that it is difficult to read the text.

The third volume of Dr. W. H. Allchin's collaborative 'Manual of Medicine' (Macmillan) deals with diseases of the nervous system, of which it gives a review in about four hundred closely printed pages. There are nine contributors to the volume, but, in spite of this, the text runs on smoothly and without obvious changes of style. The section on anatomy, written by the able hand of Prof. C. S. Sherrington, is a particularly strong feature of the book. The accounts of the various diseases are almost too condensed to be attractive reading, but are comprehensive and good.

Nothing remains to be said of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan), when mention is made of its conclusion by the third volume of the Supplement. Nothing, we mean, of the nature of this grand and disinterested enterprise. Between How and Wood, it is but natural to remark how many great names are gathered up from the dead of the period during which the main work was in progress. Victoria takes precedence with 112 pages, and Ruskin follows next with 23; but here also are Max Müller, Jowett, Huxley, Newman, James Martineau, Sir A. H. Layard, and many lesser lights, from Isaac Pitman to Orton, the Tichborne claimant. Of special interest to Americans are Fanny Kemble, Tom Hughes, Dr. McCosh, and W. J. Linton, whose wife also is recorded here, in obedience to the dictionary-maker's injunction not to put asunder what alphabetically belongs together.

The sixth volume in the second series of the great quarto Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office is distinguished at once by the fact that whereas in the first series only four and a half pages were occupied by the works of Galen, or commentaries upon them, the subsequent accessions fill seven pages, and go back as far as 1501. Guy de Chauliac, again, who was invisible in the first series, here fills a page with editions from 1480 down. These two facts show the persistency with which the marvellous collection is perfected in the older portion. Many complaints, and members affected, and branches of medical science—Gall-bladder, Glaucoma, Head, Heart, Gynæcology—requiring much space, occur in this instalment (G-Hernette). Even the layman can profitably resort to such topics as Health-resorts or Heating; and it is hard to say what common folks may not chance upon here—Goats, Gorillas, Giraffes, Guano, Grindstones, Handkerchiefs (their suppression being called for by one author in order to ward off contagious diseases like tuberculosis, etc.). This is not more surprising, perhaps, than Theophilus Garencieres's "true and genuine tincture of coral in physick, grounded upon reason, established by experience, and confirmed by authentical authors in all ages" (London, 1676). Goethe's works have found a place, and Goldsmith (for it is a moot question whether he was ever a physician) had to be entered. Garfield, for his case, and Guiteau for his insanity, Grant for his cancer, furnish other rubrics. And Dr. S. A. Green, prolific in much good matter, contributes his copy of the laws of Harvard College of 1855, with an introduction. To a Dutch edition (1652) of Hermes (Trismegistus) is appended a reference for his life and another for his portrait; and this is but a sample of the pains bestowed upon this invaluable repository of medical information.

M. Jules Martin's annual 'Nos Artistes' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) passes in review, with portrait and sketch of career, 358 actors, actresses, operatic and concert singers, and dancers, and affords a valuable study of character and talent. The provinces vie with Paris in producing these lights of the stage, and even Sacramento, New Orleans, and Boston gave birth to as many actresses in this gallery. While many countries of Europe have contributed of their natives, if any one was born in Germany, it is, we believe, not revealed here. Among the female caprices are the withholding of place and date of birth, or at least year of birth, or the leaving the date to be reckoned by any one who will take the trouble. One actress alone supplies no portrait of herself. Notice is duly taken of rebuffs at the door of the Conservatoire. An American can but be struck by these physiognomies in respect of training and intelligence in comparison with the expressionless faces of the majority of the craft in this country. M. Martin supplies an index of names, though the arrangement is alphabetical, and adds historical accounts of the various theatres, of dramatic societies, etc.

The serial "Meisterbilder fürs Deutsche Haus" (Munich: George D. W. Callwey; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) runs on with twenty-four sheets to date, embracing latterly the Holbein Erasmus, Dürer's Hieronymus Holzschuher and "Feldschlange," Raphael's Sistine Madonna (in whole and in part), Rembrandt's "Raising of Lazarus," Michael Angelo's "Creation of Adam," Leonardo's "Mona Lisa," besides examples from Cornelius, Titian, and Velasquez. The inner pages of the wrapper of each plate discuss the picture, the artist, and the mode of reproduction. These pictures well deserve a place in the schoolroom as well as the home, and rare will be the direct art instruction which can compete with the silent influence of such masterpieces (daily viewed) in the formation of taste.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, No. 11, contains an account of a visit, on behalf of a German company, to some gold districts in the northern part of the province of Pechili by Dr. K. Vogelsang. He reports that the alluvium gold is apparently exhausted in the region visited, and the natives have stopped mining. Only a few places seemed to warrant a more extended survey. A carefully drawn map shows the geological features of the country immediately adjacent to his route. Dr. Herrmann concludes his examination of the history of the Pitcairn Islanders, particularly of the population statistics, since 1800, and maintains that, notwithstanding recent favorable reports of the present condition of the islanders, the facts show the inevitable tendency to degeneration of a mixed race of whites and natives leading a perfectly isolated life.

"Certain Aboriginal Remains of the Northwest Florida Coast" is the title of a memoir by Clarence B. Moore in the latest number of the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. It is the result of the exploration of twenty mounds along the shores of Perdido, Pensacola, and Choctawhatchee Bays and Santa Rosa Sound. Mr. Moore describes a new form of burial, where a skull alone, or a skull with a few bones, lies beneath an inverted vessel of earthenware. A similar method of interment was practised in Georgia, but there the remains had been cremated, while evidences of cremation have not thus far been met with on the northwest Florida coast. A most striking collection of purely aboriginal earthenware has been obtained from the mounds and cemeteries explored. Its decoration, which is largely symbolical, and its make show a mixture of cultures. There are many of the life forms of the ware of the Middle Mississippi region, but the admixture of coarsely powdered shell found in that section does not appear in the clay of the Florida vessels. The complicated stamp decoration of Georgia and of the Carolinas is met with, but not the tempering of the clay with small pebbles to form "gritty ware." The paper is profusely illustrated. The same number of the Journal contains a shorter article, by the same author, on "Certain Aboriginal Remains on the Tombigbee River." The absence of cremated remains thereabouts, as well as in northwestern Florida, shows that the custom of cremation was not introduced by way of this region into the peninsula. It is probable that it passed through Georgia, where fragments of cremated bones, either covered with inverted vessels or placed in vessels capped by inverted bowls, are plentiful.

By the accidental dropping of a line on page 19, column i. of last week's issue, the third sentence of the closing paragraph was deprived of sense. It should have read: "Particularly interesting is the association of melancholia with disturbance of the central area of the parietal lobe."

—The editor of the *Atlantic* opens the new year with a somewhat mournful consideration of the "Cheerless Reader," who makes his days and nights unhappy with streams of sorrowful correspondence after each issue of his magazine. The "Gentle Reader" of the olden day is no more, and the "Cheerful Reader" shows signs of disappearing too; soon nothing but the "Intelligent Reader" will be left, and then "the world of

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periodical literature will be a dismal world indeed." But perhaps the editor will come to think better of the situation by reflecting that it is really a high tribute to the character of a periodical when readers who cannot peruse an article which goes against the grain of their own habits of thought without a blow in return, still cannot leave it unread. The editor tells us that the *Atlantic* is to continue what it has been in the past, and that can only mean that it is to be a magazine with a mission. To any such the objecting reader is an inevitable accompaniment, and is really a sign that the remedies which it is administering to the body politic and social are taking hold. R. Brimley Johnson's article on "England in 1901" is a searching piece of criticism on present conditions and tendencies across the sea, and, in its most important facts and conclusions, equally applicable here at home. Mr. Johnson strikes a sturdy blow against "the magic illusion of philanthropy, by which a man is led honestly to believe that he is conferring a benefit on others by shaping them after his own image"; the primitive and unphilosophical assumption that all who cannot appreciate the blessings of our civilization should be wiped off the face of the earth; "the foolish process of remoulding nations on Birmingham patterns." As to the African situation specifically, the present conditions are inevitable "till something shall knock enough sense into us to shake hands with an honorable enemy." Mr. Rollo Ogden calls attention to "The New Powers of the National Committee." The chairmen of our party National Committees, by virtue of the large sums of money collected and expended under their control, and their hold upon official patronage, are threatening the independence of the executive and legislative departments of the Government. In other words, we are setting up a machine calculated to reproduce at Washington the situation which has been such a blight at various State capitals, preëminently Harrisburg and Albany. Professor See contributes an enthusiastic and heartening paper on recent progress in astronomy, upholding the view that this and kindred sciences are by no means finished; and he indicates pathways along which there still are hopeful chances of new and far-reaching discoveries. He pays high tribute to the deserving work of Campbell, now the director of the Lick Observatory. Doppler (not Doeppler) was the first to enunciate the widely applied principles of spectral determination of motion in the line of sight—and in 1842, not 1840. Also, Wollaston first showed the spectral lines in 1802, twelve years before Fraunhofer's map was made—not in 1826, twelve years after, as Professor See states.

—The last four volumes of the series entitled 'Modern Eloquence' (Philadelphia: John D. Morris & Co.; New York: University Publishing Co.), consist of three of Occasional Addresses and one of Anecdotes and Illustrations, with "indices" which turn out to be a "general index"; the anecdotes and illustrations being relegated to a topical classification of very limited aid to "practical utility." The Addresses are naturally of more permanent value than the preceding After-Dinner Speeches, and will compare not unfavorably with the Lectures; but they have been chosen with absolutely no discrimination for style or intrinsic worth. On either ground it would be impossible to include the two examples of Mr. McKinley's "modern eloquence." He is at one extreme of diction from (say) Judge Oliver Wendell Holmes, whose prose has few equals; and in commonplaceness the late President has here no superior. Hugo and Zola are in line with Englishmen and Americans. Among our own orators we encounter Phillips Brooks on Lincoln, Blaine on Garfield, Rufus Choate on Webster, Curtis on Lowell, Warner on Curtis, Schurz on Gen. Sherman, Olney on Marshall, Mabie on Poe. Here, too, is Clay's address to Lafayette, Charles Francis Adams on "A College Fetish," Dana on Journalism, Lowell on Democracy, Roosevelt on the "Strenuous Life" (in the same volume with Booker Washington on "The Progress of the American Negro"), Stedman on Stevenson. In the English contingent we remark Pater on Raphael, and Rosebery on Burns; also, Chamberlain on "Patriotism," speaking in 1899, before Kruger had gone to war for *his* patriotism, but with a prophetic flouting of "l'ami du genre humain," and an apology, echoically American, for the patriotic view "of the expansion of the Empire in which we seem to be fulfilling the manifest duty of our race." An early discourse by Henry Cabot Lodge to Harvard students on the "Uses and Responsibilities of Leisure" some will think to have been unduly neglected by its author in his own case. And Senator Hoar's Charleston laudation of South Carolina and Massachusetts, while suppressing even a remote allusion to his father's having been mobbed out of the State on his mission from the Commonwealth to protect her colored seamen in 1844, may mark the want of a sense of humor at least. These volumes, like the first six, are freely illustrated with portraits, mostly excellent.

—Far better specimens of the typographic art are the two volumes of select 'New England Society Orations' edited by Cephas and Eveline Warner Brainerd, and published for the New England Society of New York by the Century Company. What strikes us here is the general oblivion which has overtaken many and is rapidly overtaking more of the orators grouped together. To the country at large the names of Gardiner Spring, J. B. Romeyn, Philip M. Whelpley, C. B. Hadduck, Jonathan P. Hall, Samuel L. Knapp, George S. Hillard, and C. W. Upham are as unfamiliar as those of the present Cabinet Ministers of Italy. In a second plane of recession are John Pierpont, Horace Bushnell, Leonard Bacon, George B. Cheever, William Adams, R. S. Storrs, and Robert C. Winthrop. And at the end of the present century what will be the "*un*submerged tenth" of the remaining names—Webster, R. Choate, O. W. Holmes, Emerson, G. W. Curtis, W. M. Evarts, George P. Marsh, and Mark Hopkins? The value of this collection lies in the manifold playing upon a single string of "the day we celebrate," both in the practical application of New England principles to current events, and in the avoidance thereof. The historian of witchcraft, Charles W. Upham, speaking on Forefathers' Day, 1846, saw no peril to the Union except "on the part of those persons who feel themselves implicated in objectionable institutions maintained and cherished in some of the States." Add "a certain description of ignorant and insolent foreigners." In 1838, the Rev. Leonard Bacon, alluding to the murder of Lovejoy and the burning of Pennsylvania Hall, defended the Puritan treatment of the Quakers, who "deserved to be punished, not for their opinions, but for their actions," and found their successors in "the anti-slavery agitators of our day," who, in an age more tolerant of free speech, had the misfortune to be punished by mob rather than as were the Quakers of old (lucky dogs!) by law. The passage in which this comparison occurs will bear much study by one wishing to arrive at the orator's real attitude towards the abolitionists—especially if the student comes to it ignorant alike of them and of Dr. Bacon.

—'Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is a brightly written series of studies by Geraldine Brooks. Only one of the ten women whose lives are here briefly but entertainingly described is likely to be familiar to the general reader. Martha Washington, the beautiful "Widow Custis," is a household word; but few people know anything about the life of Elizabeth Schuyler, the wife of Alexander Hamilton, or of Margaret Brent, the woman who governed Maryland, or in fact of the other patriotic and heroic beauties whose portraits adorn these pages. In the companion volume, 'Dames and Daughters of the Young Republic,' we move in a society a little less remote, and encounter the ill-fated Elizabeth Patterson, whose high spirit and beauty may win one's sympathy if one ignores her disposition, which was, to say the least, not ingratiating. Among the portraits here given are those of "Dolly" Madison and Emily Marshall. The latter's claim to a place in the series is frankly based on her personal charms, which were unquestionable. Are American women so universally charming nowadays that we take them as a matter of course, or is real beauty as rare as ever? Is it, in fact, conceivable that, given a twentieth century Miss Marshall, she could, by her mere appearance, shake the composure of the chief cities of this continent? At any rate, the lady who in her day left no one unmoved, from the President and the Judges of the Supreme Court to the workmen who forgot their dinner hour in the mere expectation of her passing by, has the right to rank as an historical personage, and the record of her triumphs can be recommended to while away a holiday half-hour. The general get-up of these volumes is pleasing, and the illustrations are pretty and appropriate.

—The present Duke of Argyll, better known as the Marquis of Lorne, had exceptional opportunities of studying the character of the late Queen of England. His biography of her, published by Harper & Bros. under the title 'V. R. I. Queen Victoria: Her Life and Empire,' does not, however, contain much information that is not accessible elsewhere. The most interesting of the particulars that have not previously appeared are the extracts from the journal of one of her Majesty's tutors, and the reminiscences of the Queen's childhood contributed by the late Duchess of Cleveland. Brief quotations are also made from a few of the Queen's letters to intimate personal friends. In the main, the author draws upon the usual sources, which he seems to have read rather carelessly. For example, his account of the royal travels in 1846 is so confused

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that he places the Restormel mine in Guernsey instead of in Cornwall. His misquotation of her Majesty's favorite hymn, "Peace! Perfect Peace!" makes nonsense of the last line. His references to the history of the country outside of the personal record of court events are scrappy and misleading. It is obviously absurd to begin an outline of the Afghan question with a reference to the murder of Cavagnari, as it is also to introduce South African affairs by mention of Lord Carnarvon's proposals for confederation. It is, indeed, impossible to guess at the principle which has guided the writer in his selection of topics. A paragraph, for instance, is devoted to the death of Victor Hugo, whose recognition here appears to be due to the fact that he lived for a time in one of her Majesty's possessions. But the only events of English literary history that find a notice are the foundation of the *Illustrated London News* and the writing of 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men.' It is curious to note the Duke's comment on the succession duties, "which make country estates pay more than they can bear, and thus diminish to a serious extent the opportunities for occupation hitherto afforded."

—MM. Armand Brette and Edme Champion have published an interesting volume entitled 'La France au milieu du XVIIe Siècle (1648-1661) d'après la Correspondance de Gui Patin' (Paris: Colin). The letters of this singular but celebrated physician were published posthumously in 1683, and long enjoyed wide popularity. For example, the article on Patin in Bayle's 'Dictionary' contains the strongest testimony to their fame. "They are so well known by every one," says Bayle, "that it is unnecessary for me to speak of the author's merit." From the seventeenth century to the days of Sainte-Beuve, Patin's correspondence had a well-recognized place in French literature, never ranking among the masterpieces, but always claiming a certain amount of notice from its frank pessimism and downrightness of utterance. There are a great many of the letters, and latterly they have dropped out of sight a good deal, partly because Patin's professional reputation tends to decline, and partly because his correspondence is not only bulky but somewhat monotonous in tone. The present edition is based less upon enthusiastic admiration than upon the desire to render accessible a certain kind of historical evidence. Patin was a contemporary of Richelieu, Condé, and Turenne—a contemporary, also, of Louis XIV. and Colbert. He lived at a time when France was humbling the House of Austria in both branches, gaining fresh territory by the Peace of Westphalia, and shining forth in full splendor before the eyes of an astonished Europe. Yet Patin sees none of this. He is a caustic critic of prime ministers, he lashes the vices of society with fierce asperity, and nothing that occurs in either Paris or the realm seems to him really good. Doubtless such melancholy views are due to temperament, and the generation should not be judged by the witness of a sombre physician. Nevertheless, these letters deserve to be known and considered, the more because the times which they depict are so often judged by their brilliant achievements in arms and letters. As M. Champion says at the close of his introduction: "Aussi, plus Patin nous surprend, nous scandalise, et plus il nous rend service." There was at least one man who scorned the triumphs of Louis XIV. and saw what was least pleasant in an age of glory. MM. Brette and Champion print but a portion of the letters, and hope only to illustrate the value of Patin's strictures upon contemporary life. Selecting the period of the Fronde, they give the passages which best represent his attitude towards men and events. For ordinary purposes their abridgment will be more serviceable than the complete text, and in many ways it is better than the three-volume edition of Reveillé-Parise.

GREEN'S LETTERS.

Letters of John Richard Green. Edited by Leslie Stephen. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

It is now more than eighteen years since Green died, and although there have appeared essays upon him by Mr. Bryce, Mr. P. L. Gell, Mrs. Humphry Ward, and Mr. W. J. Loftie, besides those by Haweis and Freeman, the authoritative collection of letters with biographical comment is only appearing at this late date. Why the publication of his correspondence has been retarded we have no right to ask. That the delay cannot be traced to any want of devotion might be inferred, if other evidence were lacking, from the beautiful edition of his 'History' which Mrs. Green has prepared with such great care. Green had many stanch friends, too, and a devoted publisher. At any rate the work is now in print. As for the postponement, Mr. Stephen says in the opening sentence of his preface: "I must ask readers of these letters to take for granted that there have been sufficient reasons for the long delay in their appearance."

The book was worth waiting for, and it will have the effect of heightening Green's reputation as a man of talent and distinction, if not, in certain respects, of positive genius. The favorable impression is the deeper because the test is so severe. It was not one of those lives which make an inevitable appeal through the element of action. It was devoid of striking incident, or indeed of any incident at all save such as is supplied by the employments of a curate in East London, and by a constant change of residence in search of health. Nor has the meagre material which a quiet life affords been embellished by the special pleading of an enthusiastic biographer. No one now living is better qualified to write biography than Mr. Stephen. Both his gifts and his experience are quite exceptional. But in the case of contemporaries the biographer is expected to have known intimately the man of whom he writes. As it happens, Mr. Stephen's acquaintance with Green was slight, and upon this ground he thought himself unfitted to undertake even the task of editing the letters. "When, however, Mrs. Green came to the conclusion that, under all the circumstances, the proposed arrangement would be most satisfactory to her, I could no longer hesitate." We have said that the test is a severe one. Mr. Stephen feels placed under an imperative restriction by having known Green so slightly, and remains for this reason in the background. His part of the work is done to perfection, but it is relatively inconsiderable. The effect, favorable or unfavorable, depends upon the quality of the letters alone, and it is because they disclose Green's aspirations so clearly that they create a stronger sense than before existed of his ability and character.

Green owed nothing to fortune except the place of his birth, and a father, "of great tenderness and simplicity," who took an interest in the boy's questions and answered them by saying: "I do not know, but I will try to find out." He was born at Oxford in 1837, and came of humble family. His grandfather was a tailor, his father a "registrar and maker of silk-gowns for Fellows." There seems to have been no sign of genius in previous generations; and though Green received financial assistance from relatives when he was an undergraduate at Jesus College, he was but little indebted for his success to the influences which are communicated by highly educated parents and a refined home. This fact is the more remarkable inasmuch as he developed great delicacy of perception, and an innate refinement which the self-made do not always possess.

At school and college, Green began to show originality, but his interests carried him beyond the bounds of a stereotyped curriculum. Gibbon "arrived at Oxford with a stock of erudition that might have puzzled a doctor, and a degree of ignorance of which a schoolboy would have been ashamed." Green's case was doubtless similar during the years of his residence at Jesus. Like Gibbon, too, he gained from his studies at Oxford little profit and less pleasure. For Jesus College and its Welshmen he grew to entertain a positive dislike, which, after it had been softened by years, was expressed in the form of banter. "I don't love Edward First (as I showed t'other day), but I wouldn't abuse him so if he had really hung those bards. But he didn't." And of Jesus College he says: "£5,000 are spent annually in that vile place on 'Welsh Education.'"

While Green's career at Oxford was undistinguished by a Hertford or an Ireland, he did not leave the University without giving some hint of his strong predilection for history. Besides attracting the notice of A. P. Stanley, he wrote a series of papers upon "Oxford during the Last Century," which is marked by the best qualities of his later work, extreme vivacity and solid information. Unfortunately, these articles were buried in the columns of a local newspaper, and brought the author neither distinction nor encouragement.

In the choice of a profession, Green was largely influenced by the teaching of F. D. Maurice. Under the spur of enthusiasm he decided to enter the Church, and the work which he did as a clergyman between 1861, when he was ordained, and 1869, when he abandoned the clerical character, was of the most honorable and disinterested kind. Despite his wretched health, his growing fondness for history, and the gradual change of his theological opinions, he kept practical duties manfully before him until the last. The cholera of 1866 found him at his post in Stepney, where he worked, in the words of Mr. Gell, "as officer of health, inspector of nuisances, ambulance superintendent, as well as spiritual consoler, and burier of the dead." Mr. Stephen adds: "On one occasion he found a man dangerously ill in an upper room. Some big draymen in the street refused to help. Green therefore tried to carry the man down stairs. His slight frame was unequal to the effort, and the two fell

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from the top to the bottom of the stairs together."

At length liberalism broadened into a state of mind which involved doubt upon important matters of Christian faith. Green, however, had no wish to vex the Church with his heresy, and withdrew from the priesthood upon the valid plea of ill health. Thenceforth until his death he supported himself by writing for the *Saturday Review*, editing for Macmillan, and publishing books on English history. During the last ten years and more he was struggling with consumption—a doomed man fighting with all his might to do his work, and do it well. After many trials success came with the publication of his famous 'Short History'; success, but not health. Mrs. Humphry Ward has described "the afternoons, in his later years, when the pretty house in Kensington Square was the centre of a small society such as England produces much more rarely than France. Mr. Lecky came—Sir Henry Maine, Mr. Freeman, Mr. Bryce, Bishop Stubbs sometimes, Mr. Stopford Brooke, and many more. It was the talk of equals, ranging the widest horizons, started and sustained by the energy, the undauntedness of a dying man. There in the corner of the sofa sat the thin, wasted form, life flashing from the eyes, breathing from the merry or eloquent lips, beneath the very shadow and seal of death—the eternal protesting life of the intelligence."

Such in briefest outline were the events of Green's life. The letters begin a short time before he left Oxford, and cover, almost exactly, the years 1860-80. He lived until 1883, but towards the end he was prevented by illness from writing letters, save at the longest intervals. During the period in question his chief correspondents were Prof. Boyd Dawkins, the late Professor Freeman, Mrs. Creighton and her sister, Miss Olga von Glehn; Miss Stopford, afterwards his wife, and Mr. and Mrs. Humphry Ward. He must have written to many others, but the vast majority of the letters here given are addressed to those who have been mentioned.

The charm of a volume like this vanishes beneath the abridgments of the reviewer. Long quotations, were they possible, might do something towards expressing the wit, or the animation, or the good feeling which so abound; but Green's gifts were versatile, and quotations, however copious, could illustrate only a part of his activity. His letters were like his conversation. Mrs. Humphry Ward emphasizes the essential feature of both when she says: "His talk *gave* perpetually; much of the previous talk of the world has not been a giving, but a gathering and plundering talk. But Mr. Green's was talk of the best kind, abundant, witty, disinterested; and his poet's instinct for the lives and thoughts of others, his quick imagination, his humorous and human curiosity about all sorts and sides of things, made pose and pedantry impossible to him." Generosity is a fine trait, but its practical value depends much upon the resources at command. Green always made free with what he had, and his profuseness meant the more to his friends because it flowed from an unfailing source of intellectual, moral, and human interest. Ill health so long continued and wearing brought with it moments of physical depression; yet the mind was ever eager, the will and spirits ever ready to revive.

Mr. Stephen, with true insight, observes of Green that "though no one was more thoroughly English in his sympathies, no one had less of the quality connoted by the 'Anglo-Saxon' of ordinary discourse." His letters bear out this view conclusively. He was far more open to stimulating impressions than most Englishmen are, even among the élite. Without yielding to a weak eclecticism or losing intellectual vigor through imitation, he drew from all quarters and profited by his docility. The subjects of his leading works are English, and he felt that the Englishman ought by his superior opportunities to reach a truer conception of history than is within the grasp of the German pragmatist. It may be said, and this is quite true, that he had not mastered the historical literature of Germany. Here, in point of detailed knowledge, lay one of his limitations. At the same time, he admired Ranke and Pauli, appreciating their love of thoroughness, praising their erudition, and knowing quite well the nature of their methods. As a rule he was on the watch for the best in thought and literary standards which foreign nations could supply. From early days he had a great love of French prose. From the time of his first visit to Italy he became enraptured with that land "of enchantment and the arts." The older he grew, the more cosmopolitan were the sentiments which he announced. Having begun at the feet of Maurice, he drew close in middle life to Hellenism. He was forty years old when he wrote thus:

"But these owls always get between one's soul and the sun—as if sunshine was something dangerous. Ah me, I fear I shall always be more Hellenic than Christian—but life, life in all its energy and brightness and quick movement, life in all its quick interchange of laughter and tears, why do these men fear it so and preach it down? They preach it down! They go their way and the sun shines on, and the world laughs for freedom and for joy!"

England has her great poets and her unpoetic millions. Perhaps all that has just been said may be compressed into the statement that Green, besides having the national virtues of energy and determination, was gifted with imagination. Unlike most Englishmen, he went through the world with his attention alert and his sympathies undulled by contact with the commonplace. To be a perpetual curate in Stepney was not, with him, to be made insensible by "endless rows of monotonous streets." He caught the poetry of East London: "Poetry in the great river which washes it on the south, in the fretted tangle of cordage and mast that peeps over the roofs of Shadwell, or in the great hulls moored along the wharves of Wapping." And it was by virtue of an answering emotion that he seized upon the best which men had done in the past or were doing about him.

It would be ludicrous to set down, item after item, an epitome of the tastes and aptitudes which these letters reveal. The main thing is that they are alive with the sparkling spirits of the writer, or, when serious, that they are instinct with a sense of strong and penetrating earnestness. Green began letter-writing with a view to perfecting his style, and the results are at first amusing, because each phrase is the product of sedulous care. The writer is keeping a copy against the possible loss of such an elegant composition. But soon, wonderfully soon, a change becomes noticeable. The undergraduate disappears, and his place is taken by a young lion, whom John Douglas Cook is glad to have on the staff of the *Saturday Review* in its best days. Carlyle's contributions to the 'Edinburgh Encyclopædia' differ little more from 'Sartor Resartus' than Green's letters of 1858-60 differ from those of 1865-70.

The staple of letters is friendship, and Green was a good friend. Having lost his parents when very young, and having passed his boyhood among somewhat uncongenial surroundings, he took the keenest delight in the affection and the marks of affection which he afterwards received. Mrs. Ward, the wife of his first rector, he loved and mourned as a son might do. Beneath the fun and gossip of his letters to Professor Boyd Dawkins there is always an undertone of tenderness. He was considerably younger than Freeman, who remembered him as "little Johnny Green." Afterwards, when both were working hard on English history, acquaintance ripened into friendship. Freeman got Green his chance to write for the *Saturday Review*, and they exchanged letters constantly. In these the younger man shows proper respect towards his senior, but without dropping a tone of outspoken criticism when it is called for. Then, after a frank statement of opinion, the letter may close: "Yours in all Johnnyhood, J. R. G."

On the whole, the best part of the correspondence is that which is addressed to women. Green's enthusiasm and sprightliness make him at times seem almost feminine. Better still, he had an intuitive regard for ideas and emotions that are rarely understood by men. When writing, for example, to Mrs. Creighton or Miss von Glehn, he speaks less of events than of men and women; he gives freer play to his fancy; his persiflage has a gayer ring. He loved to write light articles for the *Saturday Review* on "Children at the Beach," the "Buttercup" or débutante, and the "Ethics of Flirtation." In politics and religion Green was a liberal, but above all other things, he was a humanist. Hard work did not check the abundance of his humor, nor did ill health or religious doubt lessen his sympathy for every kind of generous endeavor. The tragedy came at the close, when the complete happiness of his married life was cut short by the disease against which he had battled with almost unexampled courage. It is with these words that Mr. Stephen closes his notice of Green's last years:

"Sir Lauder Brunton said that his force of will and enthusiasm for his work had kept him alive for two years longer than any doctor would have thought possible. He told his wife that what had kept him alive was his dread of separation from her. Many years before, he had said, I know what men will say of me; they will say, 'he died learning.' Mr. Humphry Ward adds that they will also say, 'he died loving.'"

We may hereafter speak of the way in which these letters are likely to affect the estimate of Green's historical writings. Here it may be said that they depict to the life a brave, enlightened, high-spirited, and most talented man.

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BEERS'S ENGLISH ROMANTICISM.

A History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century. By Henry A. Beers. Henry Holt & Co. 1901.

Our readers will remember that in a review of Professor Beers's earlier volume, 'A History of English Romanticism in the Eighteenth Century,' some exception was taken to the definition and delimitation of the subject. Now, in the preface to the present volume, he reasserts that by "Romanticism" he means nothing more nor less than mediævalism, and expresses the hope that "this second volume may make more clear the unity of his design and the limits of his subject." This hope is, in a measure, realized. His wisdom in confining his attention chiefly to the bellettristic aspects of his subject is even more evident than in the first volume, yet enough is said of the characteristic artistic, economic, and religious movements of the late lamented nineteenth century to produce that impression of completeness in unity at which Professor Beers has aimed. There are, indeed, numerous passages in which the lack of perspective implied in practically limiting the Romantic to the "Gothick" causes a certain inadequacy in the criticism. In general, Professor Beers is at his best, not where the demand is for sustained historical erudition, or strict analysis with fine, unblurred distinctions, but where there is need of taste in forming and realizing an impression, and play for a gift of humorous and picturesque phrase in expression. He is not the final systematic historian of the thing which most critics have agreed to call English Romanticism; he is an agreeable essayist on a few of its manifestations.

The initial study of Scott is, in respect to originality, coherence, and vividness, easily the best in the book. It is so full of apt and telling criticism in detail that it will be well to quote some pregnant sentences from it *passim*, so as to convey the drift of the criticism:

"The key to Scott's romanticism is his intense local feeling. That attachment to place which, in most men, is a sort of animal instinct, was with him a passion. . . . His absorption in the past and reverence for everything that was old, his conservative prejudices and aristocratic ambitions, all had their spring in this feeling." "Scott [this in a comparison of "Helvellyn" with "Fidelity"] was a lover of dogs — loved them warmly, individually, so to speak, personally; and all dogs instinctively loved Scott. Wordsworth had a sort of tepid, theoretical benevolence toward the animal creation in general. Yet, as between the two poets, the advantage in depth of feeling is, as usual, with Wordsworth." "Scott is always a little nervous when the lover and lady are alone together." "His show passages are such as the fight in the Trosachs, Flodden Field, William of Deloraine's ride to Melrose, the trial of Constance, the muster on the Borough Moor, Marmion's defiance to Douglas, the combat of James and Roderick Dhu, the summons of the fiery cross, and the kindling of the needfires—those romantic equivalents of the λαμπαδηφόροι in the 'Agamemnon.'" "The eighteenth-century historians were incurious of *life*. . . . Gibbon covers his subject with a lava flood of stately rhetoric which stiffens into a uniform stony coating over the soft surface of life. Scott is primarily responsible for that dramatic, picturesque treatment of history which we find in Michelet and Carlyle."

From the romantic point of view, all this is, in its way, admirable criticism, and the final impression we derive of Scott as a modern Don Quixote, a little less mad, is, we believe, as just as it is vivid. It is to be regretted that in the course of so excellent an essay we should find a reference to the idiots in "MacArthur's Hymn," who complain that "steam spoils romance at sea." Indeed, the proof-reading throughout the book is none of the best.

The two chapters which follow upon "Coleridge, Bowles, and the Pope Controversy," and "Keats, Leigh Hunt, and the Dante Revival," exhibit the same characteristic qualities as the "Scott." In both many readers will see defects springing from the exclusion of Platonism and the Orient from among the sources of "romantic" inspiration. It is a strange definition of Romanticism which must be wrenched to make it cover "Thalaba" and the "Ode on the Intimations of Immortality," or "Epipsychidion" and 'Vathek.' Nevertheless, like all of Professor Beers's writing, these chapters are full of felicitous judgments and memorable sentences. The differentiation of Keats's romantic subjects from Scott's is particularly good. Granting the romantic programme proposed by Ariosto in the opening lines of the 'Orlando Furioso,' Scott, says Professor Beers, "took for his theme *arme* and *audaci imprese*, while Keats sang of the *donne*, the *amori*, and the *cortesie*." He was the poet of the lute and the nightingale, rather than of the shock of spear in tourney and crusade. His "Specimen of an Induction to a Poem" begins—

> "Lo! I must tell a tale of chivalry."

"But he never tells it."

The succeeding chapters, dealing with "The Romantic School in Germany" and "The Romantic Movement in France," were, of course, essential to the full rounding of the theme; while they move rather perfunctorily, they are still very readable. In view of the fact that Professor Beers's self-chosen subject has to do with mediæval *motifs* in nineteenth-century literature, it is a little odd that, in speaking twice of the singularly romantic effect of the horn in "Hernani," he makes no mention of its very obvious relation to the famed blast that Roland blew at Roncesvalles.

In the discussion of "Diffused Romanticism" and "The Pre-Raphaelites" there is much that is stimulating and suggestive, and a little that is perplexing. Writing of Swinburne, Professor Beers says: " 'Laus Veneris' follows a version of the tale given in Maistre Antoine Gaget's 'Livre des Grandes Merveilles d'Amour' (1530), in which Venusberg is called 'le mont Horsel.' " If Professor Beers has had the advantage of perusing Gaget's book, a description of the copy would be of the highest interest. It has been suspected by a skeptical generation that the half-page of old French prefixed to "Laus Veneris" is a *jeu d'esprit* of the creative imagination. At any rate, there is no such work in the library of the British Museum, and no mention of either Gaget or his book in Quérard, Larousse, Lacroix, or Chevalier, in the exhaustive 'Bibliographie de l'Amour,' or in the thirty-four fat folios of the 'Universal-Lexicon.' We fear that the seeker after the 'Livre des Grandes Merveilles d'Amour' is likely to experience the disappointments of one who would acquire for his collection the novels of Arthur Pendennis or the tracts of Dr. Primrose.

The final chapter, treating of "Tendencies and Results," is suggestive again, but inconclusive. The trouble is, that Professor Beers has chosen to adopt too narrow conceptions of both Classicism and Romanticism. It is perfectly true, as he urges in his preface, that one has the right to start with any conception that will help him attain the end of his discourse; but confusion and inconclusiveness are sure to follow an attempt to confine a notion essentially various and vague within too strict bounds. Thus, Professor Beers's tendency is to consider all Latin humanism classic; whereas there is certainly a sense in which Virgil, the father of it all, is one of the most romantic of poets. Again, he is given to writing as if Classicism were a sort of iron shirt or strait-jacket for the muse, a thing abhorred of the poet. But, if we mistake not, the true classical spirit is simply the desire to live up to the highest standards in art and life, only presupposing an objective accumulation of such standards. Viewed from this angle, the classic and the romantic come to seem two perennially existing tendencies, and temperaments, opposite, indeed, but complementary rather than contradictory or mutually exclusive. From this point of view, Romanticism is a process of which Classicism is the attainment. Poets and artists seek the strange and the beautiful, each in his own way, until from their practice so-called classical standards are evolved. But no sooner do these become fixed than there ensues a new adventuring after beauty and strangeness, and a "romantic" period begins. If we give heed to such considerations as these, the "romanticism" of the last two centuries will appear not a "return to the mediæval," or to "nature," or to anything else, though these formulæ may describe certain of its aspects. It will be seen to be, rather, a resumption of the general course of literary evolution after an eddy of formalism, which, by reason of obvious social and political causes, had exhibited, as a matter of fact, less than usual of the true classical spirit.

Life and Times of William Lowndes of South Carolina, 1782-1822. By Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901. Pp. x, 257.

William Lowndes, the subject of this sketch, was born February 11, 1782. He was the youngest and only surviving son of Rawlins Lowndes, one of the best-known Revolutionary leaders of the South, President of South Carolina in 1778, and a prominent member of the Legislature which voted for a convention to ratify the Constitution. It is interesting to note that the father was a strong opponent of the new frame of government, declaring in the debate that he wished for no other epitaph than the words, "Here lies the man who opposed the Constitution because it was dangerous to the liberties of America." William was taken to England in 1789, where the characteristically unfeeling treatment which he received at school in punishment for a misdemeanor brought on rheumatic fever, and doomed him to invalidism for the rest of his life. He returned to Carolina in 1792, and finished his school life five years later, his teacher informing his father that the boy "had learned all he could teach him, and was beyond him." He then studied law, and in 1804 was admitted to the bar.

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Although his education was distinctly English and Carolinian, Lowndes's political thinking had early begun to take a wider range, with the result of detaching him more and more from the Federalism which then dominated his State. How much such a change of opinion counted was shown in the strong objection raised to his marriage to a daughter of Thomas Pinckney, younger brother of Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. Lowndes was charged with being "a Republican," "a Republican-Democrat," a wanderer from Federalism; and the good offices of his friends were necessary to overcome the parental opposition. Years afterwards, commenting on the tenacity with which the Pinckneys held to their political creed, he observed that he had never been able to change his wife's opinions; and she in fact remained throughout a stanch Federalist. The practice of law proved distasteful, and after a year Lowndes withdrew, and until 1810 devoted himself mainly to the management of his estate. A series of articles in the Charleston *Courier* in reply to James Stephen's 'War in Disguise'—an attack on Jefferson's commercial policy—attracted attention, and led to Lowndes's election to the General Assembly, where he seems to have had an important share in the readjustment of the plan of representation then made, and which continued in force until 1866.

In 1810 he was elected to Congress, where his elder brother, Thomas, had represented Charleston from 1800 to 1805. With him went Langdon Cheves and John C. Calhoun, with both of whom he maintained thereafter an unbroken friendship. Clay, then Speaker, put Lowndes on the Committee on Commerce and Manufactures. Early convinced that the troubles with England and France could be settled only by war, he worked diligently for an increase of the navy, at that time, thanks to Jefferson's policy, wholly unprepared for active service; and he even seriously entertained the idea of entering the army. He was strongly opposed to the "caucus principle," which he characterized as "abominable," and refused, with Cheves, Calhoun, and others, to attend the caucus which renominated Madison. After the declaration of war, he tried to get a commission in the army, but withdrew his application on finding "that it would only be given on political grounds, and would not allow of active service" (p. 113). At the next session he was assigned to the Committee on Military Affairs, but, though still criticising the Administration for its temporizing policy, was unwilling to embarrass it by adverse action. He joined with Calhoun, however, in opposing Gallatin's proposed confiscation of the money accruing from the sale of imported goods which had been seized, and which was held by the Treasury, and, with Calhoun and Cheves, voted with the Federalists in favor of the remission of penalties under the Non-Intercourse Act.

In 1814, being then a member of the Committee on Naval Affairs, Lowndes voted for Calhoun's bill repealing the embargo, and put himself on record as unalterably opposed to privateering. He also supported Calhoun's plan for a bank, offered in opposition to that of Dallas. In 1815 he became Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, and proposed and defended the tariff of 1816. There seems to be some reason for thinking, however, that Lowndes was not fully convinced of the ultimate goodness of the measure, but advocated it rather as "the best possible for the time" (p. 154). He was now a recognized power in the House. In 1816, and again in 1817, he declined the war portfolio, being determined, according to his biographer, "to be absolutely independent of all administrative favors" (p. 156); he also refused offers of the mission to France, and special missions to Constantinople and St. Petersburg. In the Fifteenth Congress he carried a bill abolishing the internal war taxes, and saw his favorite plan of a sinking fund successfully under way. In 1818 he supported Forsyth's bill against filibustering, and in one of his most notable speeches upheld the view of John Quincy Adams, then Secretary of State, on the question of recognizing the South American republics. He also made two speeches in favor of the banks. His last speech of the session was against the approval of Jackson's course in the Arbuthnot-Ambrister affair.

At the close of the session Lowndes went immediately to Europe for his health. His notebook is filled with observations on canals, factories, banks, hospitals, asylums, roads, politics, etc.; and his tall, striking figure, keen and varied interest in affairs, and unusual powers of conversation made a distinct impression upon those whom he met. In England, however, he failed, partly through his own fault, to meet some people, among them Lord Holland, whom he particularly wished to see, and in consequence conceived the existence of a pervading prejudice on the part of Englishmen against Americans. In France Gallatin helped him to interesting acquaintance. Thence he went to Italy, still continuing his copious record of whatever he saw. He returned to America in October, convinced that "nothing can make a man so proud of being an American as travelling in Europe" (p. 197).

In the great debate over the admission of Missouri, Lowndes, now Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, at first spoke but little, devoting himself to the Spanish treaty and tariff revision. His defeat the next year by Taylor of New York, in the contest for the Speakership, was a great disappointment, the office being the only one which he seems ever really to have desired. When the Missouri Constitution came before Congress, Lowndes drew up the report advocating its acceptance, and opened the debate with one of his greatest speeches. But his health was now rapidly giving way, and he was absent a good deal from the House. He returned to his seat in December, 1821, and in March presented a report from a select Committee on Weights and Measures, "proposing ways for insuring accuracy and uniformity." With the hand of death visibly upon him, it is strange to find him offered, and seriously wishing to accept, the French mission. The climax of his public career came a few days after his return to Washington in December, when the Legislature of South Carolina nominated him for President. The endorsement bade fair to bring him into rivalry with Calhoun, but death intervened. His health continuing to fail, Lowndes determined on a voyage to Europe, but died on the way, October 27, 1822, and was buried at sea.

Mrs. Ravenel has told in an interesting way the story of Lowndes's career. The loss or destruction of valuable papers has made the material scanty, and less use than could have been wished has been made of official documents. Enough has been drawn upon, however, to enable the author to construct a pleasant and useful biography of a South Carolina leader whose political tenets were also reasoned political convictions, whose public honors came unsought, and whose influence upon his generation, aside from that ascribable to unusual powers of exposition and argument, was due most of all to his lofty independence and keen sense of political and personal honor.

The Two First Centuries of Florentine History. The Republic and Parties at the Time of Dante. By Prof. Pasquale Villari. Translated by Linda Villari. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

By this translation of her husband's book, Signora Villari has placed American students of Florentine history, and of Dante, under real obligation. In Italian the work has been known piecemeal for a long time, as much of it originated in lectures which Professor Villari gave in Florence, in 1866. These lectures he printed from time to time as magazine articles; then collected them in book-form, in 1890; and finally reissued them, with revisions and additions, in 1893. The result of this method of cumulative composition is naturally a series of important monographs, and not a consecutive narrative history. But the author frankly warns the reader of this fact, and of the further drawback that arises from the monographs being written at different times, so that the more recent are based on a wider knowledge of the subject than the earlier. For, thanks to Professor Villari's own researches, begun more than forty years ago, our knowledge of early Florentine history has been immensely extended. He has done most himself, and he has guided and inspired a notable group of younger men, who have studied in detail, with scientific zeal, almost every aspect of the period.

But, while a narrative history, cast at a single fusing, is usually to be preferred, it may be doubted whether, for several of the topics which Professor Villari deals with, the monograph is not the proper vehicle. Such subjects as "The Family and the State in Italian Communes," and "The Commercial Interests and Policy of the Greater Guilds in Florence," require to be treated by the massing and analysis of a multitude of minute facts, and not by narration, which best suits the chronicling of events. The same applies to the "Introduction," in which Professor Villari, after rapidly sketching the course of Italian development from the fall of the Roman Empire to the rise of the communes, states the philosophy of that epoch, as he sees it, announces the lines on which he proposes to investigate his main theme, and sums up its significance. We quote his summing up, because it will serve better than much reviewing to introduce the reader to Professor Villari's position as an historian of one of the vital crises in human development, and to his purpose in this particular work:

"It should not be thought that the Commune arose to champion the rights of man or in the name of national independence. Nothing of the kind. The Empire was still

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held to be the sole and universal fount of right. Almost to the close of the fifteenth century, in fact, all cities, whether Guelph or Ghibelline, foes or friends of the Empire, continued to indite their state papers in its name. The revived republics always acknowledged its supremacy and their own dependence—almost, one might say, as though, in claiming a new and more general exemption, they only sought to be, as it were, their own dukes or counts. They combated the nobles and combated the Empire; but, victory once assured, they recognized the authority of the Emperor, and prayed him to sanction the privileges they had won. Nor was the destruction of the Empire at any time desired by the Popes; its protection was often indispensable to them, and they too recognized it as the legitimate heir of ancient Rome, and consequently as the only source of political and civil rights. Their purpose was to subject the temporal to the spiritual power. Therefore, during the rise of the Commune, theocracy and feudalism, Papacy and Empire still subsisted together, and always in conflict. The Commune had to struggle long against obstacles of all kinds; but it was destined to triumph, and to create the third estate and people by whom alone modern society could be evolved from the chaos of the Middle Ages. This constitutes the chief historical importance of the Italian Commune" (pp. 36, 37).

After this profound generalization, Professor Villari traces the history of Florence from its mythical origin, through the Roman and post-Roman times, to the coming of Charlemagne and the new feudal order, out of which, two centuries later, the Commune issued. He describes with sufficient minuteness the affairs of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the rise of the people, the guilds, the private and civic life, and the great current and counter-current of the Papacy and the Empire. But it is the thirteenth century to which he properly devotes three-quarters of his space. Then definite parties sprang into being; then policies and personages with conflicting ambitions emerged; and then, finally, after generations of such a nervous and violent career as in recent times we associate with the semi-savage Spanish-American republics, the people triumphed. We cannot review Professor Villari's chapters in detail, but we can commend them almost without reserve. He succeeds as admirably in depicting every change in that kaleidoscopic story as in his generalizations. To take a single instance, we may cite his account of the chaos of factions which followed the downfall of Giano della Bella, and led to the banishment of Dante; he renders a permanent service here by showing how little the *grande politique* of Papacy and Empire, and how much the ambitions of grasping individuals, had to do with that terrific feud which shattered popular government in Florence beyond repair. Corso Donati's private schemes, his vindictiveness, his arrogance, his masterfulness, counted for more than the world-rivalry of Pope and Emperor in causing this calamity. Professor Villari ends with the abortive expedition of Henry VII. into Italy.

Signora Villari has made a readable translation, with only an occasional slip; like the use of such forms as *arisal* and *destroyal*, to indicate that her long residence in Italy has left any trace on her idiomatic English. This volume is provided with an index and more than twenty illustrations, which the original lacks. We wish that room might have been found for the rare Florentine chronicle which Professor Villari printed as an appendix to his Italian work.

Nova Legenda Anglie: As collected by John of Tynemouth, John Capgrave, and others, and first printed with new lives by Wynkyn de Worde A. D. MDXUI. Now re-edited with fresh material from MS. and printed sources by Carl Horstman, Ph.D. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

Few people, perhaps, will be found to share the taste of Renan, who asserts in one of his essays that if condemned to a life of seclusion and limited to the choice of a single work with which to while away the hours of loneliness, he would select out of all books in the world the 'Lives of the Saints.' Nevertheless, the value of these productions has long been recognized, not only as reflections of the religious life of the Middle Ages, but as often embodying fragments of folk-lore and saga which might otherwise have perished. Among the workers in this field Dr. Horstman holds undisputed preëminence, as far as the Saints' Legends in their English forms are concerned, and he has still further increased the obligation of mediæval students to his industry by the two handsome volumes containing the Latin collection called 'Nova Legenda Anglie,' which have just issued from the Clarendon Press.

As is set forth in Dr. Horstman's introduction, this collection of lives of the saints of the British Isles exclusively is really due to John of Tynemouth, who lived in the first half of the fourteenth century, although it passes more generally under the name of Capgrave. It is possible that the latter is responsible for the rearrangement of the lives in alphabetical order—not to speak of some other changes—which is already observed in certain manuscripts of the 'Nova Legenda' dating from the fifteenth century; but this is conjectural. At any rate, it was in this alphabetically arranged form, with some omissions and additions, that the work was first printed in 1516 by Wynkyn de Worde; but Dr. Horstman has restored from the unique Cotton manuscript the portions of the original collection omitted in the first printed edition, and has endeavored, moreover, to emend the text from the manuscript, and from the primitive lives on which the collection is based, wherever such were obtainable. Dr. Horstman does not make clear by what principle he was guided in his choice of readings, but, as the variants are given at the bottom of the page, the matter, perhaps, has no great importance.

It is to be regretted that considerations of cost and delay have compelled the editor to issue his work with an introduction, valuable, as far as it goes, but admittedly incomplete, the most obvious omission being in regard to the discussion of sources. Many will feel this deficiency, especially in the case of the lives of the saints of Celtic origin, often so closely connected with Celtic saga. An indication of the varied literature which has grown up about these legends would have been of general interest to scholars. As it stands, the introduction is devoted mainly to a detailed account of the different forms through which the collection has passed, and an investigation regarding the author's life. In this latter connection the editor gives very convincing reasons for the belief that John of Tynemouth filled the office of historiographer at the famous Abbey of St. Albans, in which capacity he composed his valuable 'Historia Aurea' (still unedited); and makes it probable, moreover, that he was a victim of the pestilence of 1348-49—a considerably earlier date for the death of this worthy than that which has been hitherto accepted. In the light of these investigations of Dr. Horstman, the article on John of Tynemouth in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' appears to be a tissue of errors.

The mixture of national with religious feeling which distinguishes this collection will, to people of English descent at least, give it an additional interest. Besides, the work in this new edition will be, doubtless for some time to come, the most generally accessible of the collections of the lives of saints in Latin—the language, of course, in which practically all of them were originally composed. We accordingly commend Dr. Horstman's publication to the attention not merely of students of hagiography, of whom it is to be presumed there are but few in this country, but to the wider circle of scholars in general who occupy themselves with mediæval life and literature.

The German and Swiss Settlements of Colonial Pennsylvania: A Study of the So-Called Pennsylvania Dutch. By Oscar Kuhns. Henry Holt & Co.

This is a painstaking presentation of the outward aspect of Pennsylvania German life. Made from the records and investigations of other writers, in the main, the picture is somewhat cold in color, and the reader misses that sympathetic interpretation of Pennsylvania-German kindliness, charity, hospitality, and integrity, in great and small matters, which the author, himself a Pennsylvania German, it might be thought would have been well qualified to give. He has, however, kept any racial sympathy which he may have felt with his subject well in hand. If this be a defect, it is largely compensated for by the exactness and care of the study. Still, our author occasionally trips up. After saying that the German Palatines who settled in New York, were often confused with their Dutch neighbors, in the note on page 216 he includes at least two Dutch surnames in a list of alleged German and Swiss families. An example of understatement is found on page 205, where we read: "Missionaries like Spangenberg and Post were of the utmost value in keeping the Indians quiet for many years, and many important embassies were intrusted to their care." The important services of Frederick Christian Post, the great Moravian peace-maker, who, in the French and Indian war, robbed the French of all their Indian allies on the Ohio, would scarcely be estimated at their real worth from so diffident a claim in his behalf. A sentence on page 226 would convey to the reader not acquainted with the facts that love for music was a new thing with the Pennsylvania German, whereas at Bethlehem a century ago choral societies and orchestras gave many public concerts each year, and introduced musical instruments and the music of the great composers of the Old World into the American colonies very many years before the cities of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston en-

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joyed any such opportunities for musical culture. The extraordinary energy, initiative power, and executive capacity possessed by such a man as Dr. Brumbaugh, the present Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, who within two years has done so much to Americanize fifty thousand Porto Rican children, and who is a pure Pennsylvania German, are qualities difficult to reconcile with the author's theory that the people of whom he writes are less strong than the Anglo-Saxons in these elements of character.

Many of the most interesting facts presented in this book are relegated from the body of the page to a footnote. In one such we learn that the wife of Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, the late Gov. Russell of Massachusetts, Archibald Lampman, Bayard Taylor, Spencer F. Baird, and Judge Jeremiah S. Black were of Pennsylvania German stock; William D. Howells springs from the same race. Among the curious parallels to the mingling of English and German in the Pennsylvania-German dialect Mr. Kuhns cites such mirth-provoking phrases as "walke in le lane," "il dig up un clod del terre," and "l'owner del park vient al gate del park pur hunter," presented in the law French of England in the sixteenth century.

The Care of Books: An Essay on the Development of Libraries and their Fittings, from the Earliest Times to the End of the Eighteenth Century. By John Willis Clark, M.A., F.S.A. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

The very earliest collections of books seem to have been connected with government and religion. At least the earliest of which we have any knowledge—those of Assyria—consist chiefly of public records, decrees, and devotional writings, and were naturally housed in the palaces and temples. So in Greece, and later in Rome, temples were favorite locations for public libraries, though, with the increase of wealth and luxury, private collections were made, often more for ostentation than use, so that, as Seneca tells us, a library had come to be as necessary a part of a rich man's house as a bath-room. Pope's Timon, showing his books to his visitors, calls attention to their "dated backs" and sumptuous binding; but his Roman prototype could not do this, as his books had neither backs nor binding. They were rolls of papyrus or parchment, the text being in short columns transverse to the length of the papyrus, which was rolled up by the left hand while it was unrolled by the right, and the title was written on a slip of parchment attached to the end. Such rolls were kept in pigeon-holes, like wall-paper at a modern paper-hanger's, where a sample of the pattern takes the place of the Roman *titulus*. After the *codex*, or leaved book, came into general use (considerably after the Christian era), presses or book-cases were employed, as in the Vatican Library, of which our author gives a copious and detailed account.

In the Middle Ages the great libraries grew up in the monasteries. Each monastery needed, of course, the books used in the service, the rule of the order, the Scriptures, and some treatises on theology; and around this nucleus a collection grew. The Benedictines especially favored the collection, production, and copying of books, and enacted minute rules for their care and use by the brethren. Other orders followed the example, and Mr. Clark has spared no labor in investigating their various regulations, which furnish very curious reading.

When these collections grew so large and their use by readers so extensive as to make a special library-room necessary, the old presses were found inconvenient, and hence grew the lectern system. The library was fitted up with reading-desks on which the books were laid, each book being usually fastened to a light chain running on a rod, to prevent abstraction or displacement. In front of each desk was a bench for the reader. A quite perfect example of a library of this kind still exists in Zutphen, Holland, with the old books still chained to the desks.

As books and readers multiplied, the lectern system was found unsatisfactory, and what Mr. Clark calls the "stall" system was introduced. The ends of the double lectern were carried up high enough to allow additional shelves above the desk, upon which the books stood upright, so that the reader, without moving from his place, could command a number of volumes. The next step was to discard the chains, which in public libraries was done in the eighteenth century. This allowed the removal of the reading-desk and doubled the space available for books.

All these systems contemplated the desks or shelves as set at right angles to the walls; but in the south of Europe the plan of setting the shelves against the walls was first introduced (Mr. Clark thinks) in the Escorial of Spain, in the sixteenth century. This plan was followed in the Ambrosian Library at Milan and the Mazarine Library in Paris, with the addition of a second story of shelves, accessible by a gallery. We have now reached the period of truly magnificent libraries, capable of containing tens and hundreds of thousands of volumes. The later devices for gaining additional space, such as those in use in the British Museum, do not fall within the limits of the work before us.

Not the least interesting part of this volume consists of information about early private libraries, and the use of books in connection with the private life of the Middle Ages, as exemplified by reproductions of old drawings and illuminations. The whole work is profusely and beautifully illustrated, and will delight the hearts of book-lovers.

A Japanese Miscellany. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Hearn's "honorable" offering—to talk in Japanese style—for this book year consists of six stories, or rather condensed novels; three chapters entitled "Folk-lore Gleanings"; and six light essays, to which he gives the name "Studies Here and There." His text is marked by the customary lushness of rhetoric that in flavor is rather French than English, while there seems no lack of sensitiveness to things visible and invisible in Japanese life. He catches upon his page the subtle tints and aromas of a life and civilization unique by reason of their island growth during a thousand or two years. Yet we ask whether it is not time to cease the endless and monotonous reiteration of the words "honorable," "august," etc., in expression of the idea conveyed by the Japanese prefix *o*, which certainly gives a false and exaggerated notion of the commonplaces of Japanese life. The North American Indians are much like their probable relatives, the Japanese, not only in having no simple term signifying "brother" (or sister), but instead "older brother" or "younger brother"; in using terms of address that always imply superiority or inferiority; in impersonality of speech; in weakness of pronoun terms; and in using prefixes and expressions which imply honor to the person addressed or to anything belonging to him, and more or less depreciation of self and what belongs to self. Yet it would seem absurd to render phrases, substantives, and the "hooks and eyes" of speech, whether Japanese or Iroquois, in what in English smacks of pomp and stilts. Especially in some of the studies of what is already nearly commonplace — studies which are of the lightest possible texture, even though decorated with abundance of felicitous phrase and grandiose diction—does this mannerism border on the absurd, while in metrical sentences it becomes ridiculous. For example, one of several hundred instances in the children's song (p. 177) runs (italics ours):

> "Under the willow-tree
> Sir Mandarin-duck
> Being shone upon by the morning sun,
> His *honorable* color is dark.
> If the *honorable* complexion be dark," etc.

The "stories" are as tiny crystals, evaporated out of enormous bulk of mother liquid. They open great windows into popular superstition. That "Of a Promise Kept" tells how, in order to make good his word, a man who has committed hara-kiri sends his ghost to report. The story "Of a Promise Broken" is of a man who vows to his dying wife that he will bury a bell with her in his garden, and not marry again. Yielding to his friends, he takes a new wife, who soon hears the bell ringing in the garden, and is finally dragged out, mangled and beheaded by the ghost of the first wife. Another is the story of prayers to the pest-god, who answers by taking the life of another person of the same name and transfusing the soul into the body of the sick girl; the convalescent becoming, according to a decree of the Court, the property of both households. Other stories are of the paintings of brutes and demons, done with such artistic genius that they turn to life. These are the commonplaces of folk-lore and art stories in "the artist nation."

Japan not only is called the Land of the Dragon-fly, but is extraordinarily rich in varieties of the insect itself. In "picture-poems," as the author calls them—mere jets of fancy fixed in words, the measured ejaculations that note a fact—the *tombo* flies before the mind's eye in many a dainty conceit. The statement of such fact, in its method, shows a tender sentiment and keen appreciation, both of color, the delicate veining of the dragon-fly's wings, and its grace and swiftness of movement. The chapter on Buddhist names of plants and animals shows how fully the faith and cult of India have become the basis of popular education and culture, touching the imagination and enriching the folk-lore. As Christianity in Europe, so Buddhism in Japan, has given a new outlook on nature

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and a poetic vocabulary. For example, the Japanese name of the hammer-headed shark is *nembutsu-bo*, or the priest who chants prayers ("Namu Amida Butsu") — with a hammer and gong. Instead of a pulpit-pounder, the devout Japanese have a prayer-banger. The modern French name of shark, according to Littré, is, as Mr. Hearn recalls, only a corruption of "requiem," implying that for the man caught by a shark there was nothing to be done but to chant his requiem.

A long and rich chapter on the songs of Japanese children, including lullabys, shows how rich is this department of nursery lore. Among the "Studies," that of "The Case of O-Dai," a young girl, compels thought. At the command of "two English missionary women," she casts away the *ihai*, or ancestral tablets, and is soon exiled from society, and vanishes for ever, "flung into the furnace of a city's lust. . . . Perhaps she existed only to furnish one example of a fact that every foreign missionary ought to try to understand."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Craig, W. J. The Works of Shakespeare: The Tragedy of King Lear. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Hardesty, Irving. Neurological Technique. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
Hunt, Gaillard. The Writings of James Madison, Vols. I., II., and V. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Kidson, Robert. Town Ballads and Songs of Life. Published by the Author. 50 cents.
Komensky, J. A. The Labyrinth of the World. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Legg, L. G. W. English Coronation Records. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $12.50.
Lockwood, L. V. Colonial Furniture in America. Scribners. $7.50.
Marx, K., and Engels, F. Le Manifeste Communiste, II. Paris: Georges Bellais.
Meehan, J. F. Famous Houses of Bath and District. Bath (Eng.): B. & J. F. Meehan. 10s. 6d.
Meindl, Vincenz. Sir George Etheredge, sein Leben, seine Zeit, und seine Dramen. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Meynell Alice. Later Poems. John Lane.
Michelson, Truman, and Jewett, J. H. From the Rig-Veda. Cambridge (Mass.): Published by the Authors.
Müller, Margarethe, and Wenckebach, Carla. Glück auf. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, Lap-Leisurely, Vol. VI. Henry Frowde.
O'Neill, Moira. The Elf-Errant. London: A. H. Bullen; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Price, E. D. The Letters of Mildred's Mother to Mildred. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Private Journal of Sarah Kemble Knight: Being the Record of a Journey from Boston to New York in the Year 1704. Norwich (Conn.): The Academy Press; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.; Scribners, etc. $1.50.
Purves, G. T., and Patton, F. L. Joy in Service. American Tract Society. 50 cents.
Ross, Janet. Florentine Villas. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $25.
Stables, Gordon. In Ships of Steel. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Tolman, A. H. Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar. Globe School Book Co.
Valentine, E. U. The Ship of Silence, and Other Poems. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Walker, H. de R. The West Indies and the Empire. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 7s. 6d.

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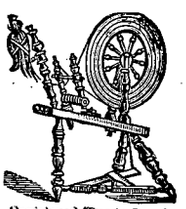

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